DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 215 589 HE 014 348

AUTHOR	Burns, Robin J.
TITLE	Higher Education and Third World Development Issues: An International Comparative Study. Report of a Survey and Evaluation of Development Education at the Post-Secondary Level in Some Industrialized Countries.
INSTITUTION	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome (Italy).
PUB DATE	May 75
NOTE	109p.; Not available in paper copy due to marginal legibility of original document.
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Community Education; Comparative Education; *Developed Nations; *Economic Development; Foreign Countries; Global Approach; Graduate Study; Institutes (Training Programs); International Education; Labor Force Development; Models; *Postsecondary Education; *Program Development; Program Evaluation; Surveys; Undergraduate Study
IDENTIFIERS	Australia; Canada; France; Netherlands; Scandinavia; United Kingdom; United States; West Germany

ABSTRACT

This study and evaluation of development education initiatives at the higher or postsecondary level in some industrialized countries has been prepared within the context of the education and information programs supported by Action for Development, a United Nations program. An opening chapter gives background on development studies in general, and suggests that development education is concerned with people and society, with bringing individuals to an awareness of themselves and the world in which they live, in order to be able to play a more active part in that world. The second chapter provides general information on development studies in these countries: Canada, United States, West Germany, France, the Netherlands, Scandinavia, United Kingdom, and Australia. Chapter three highlights some development education models, including traditional graduate and undergraduate programs, practical graduate and undergraduate programs, study/service model, research/action model, manpower training, the internationalized institution, research institute, and community education programs. Problems of each model are noted. Positive and negative prospects for the future are seen. It is suggested that in spite of its potential, the university tends to be conservative, a preserver of the status quo. However, there is more interest in global affairs. Lists of institutions in each country studied or contacted during the survey, outlines of each program included, classifications of the programs into the ten models, and notes on a guide for student action in development are appended. (MSE)

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HIGHER EDUCATION AND THIRD WORLD DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

AN INTERNATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDY

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ACTION FOR DEVELOPMENT - FAO

HIGHER EDUCATION AND THIRD WORLD DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

AN INTERNATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDY

REPORT OF A SURVEY AND EVALUATION OF DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION AT THE POST - SECONDARY LEVEL IN SOME INDUSTRIALIZED COUNTRIES

Carried out by WUS Consultant,
Robin J. Burns - Centre for
Comparative and International
Studies in Education, La Trobe
University, Australia - for
Action for Development, FAO

PREFACE

This study and evaluation of development education initiatives at the higher or post-secondary level in some industrialized countries has been prepared within the context of the education and information programmes supported by Action for Development (AD) at a national and international level. Action for Development is an FAO/United Nations programme to help stimulate a critical awareness of development issues and to promote the participation of people in their own development.

The project was carried out by Ms. Robin Burns of La Trobe University, Australia, under an AD/FAO contract to the World University Service and with the active cooperation and support of many development institutes and agencies, universities and higher education bodies as well as colleagues at FAO, the UN and Unesco. We would like to express our appreciation to all those who participated in this initiative - in particular the Secretary General of WUS, Mr. S. Chidambaranathan - and trust that the study and evaluation fills some of the need expressed for in-depth research to support renewed efforts in this field.

The present publication does not claim to be exhaustive and it is clear that quite different approaches may be used in countries not covered by the report. It is hoped however that this necessarily limited experience will help stimulate new initiatives to make higher education in the industrialized countries more relevant to the needs of a rapidly developing world and thereby enable the industrialized countries to play a constructive role in creating a new and more just international social and economic order.

Action for Development will continue to play a supporting role for national initiatives in this field.

Action for Development
FAO
00100 Rome

May 1975

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INTRODUCTION

Background

This survey and evaluation of development education at the post-secondary level in some industrialized countries, was initiated and funded by the Action for Development (AD) programme of FAO, in cooperation with Unesco. It forms part of a series of recent survey and evaluation documents produced by AD as part of its support action for development education activities taking place in Europe, North America and Australia/New Zealand. Other recent publications have dealt with development education in schools 1/, development education by the development funding agencies 2/, development education through trade unions and workers' education organizations 3/, and development education through special issues such as Third World commodities 4/ or the Sahel zone 5/. Because of the demand from many AD partners for a critical re-appraisal of what was being done - or not being done - at the university level, it has been decided by AD to collect and collate information on development education experiences in some industrialized countries and to attempt an evaluation of what had seemed the more interesting initiatives, both underway long enough to allow evaluation and where there was a university/tertiary institute actively touching on development and Third World issues involving both students and academic staff. It was hoped that this survey would provide a document with some guidelines for future action in this field.

Development Education

While development education is still considered by many to be a luxury and even a diversion of effort and funds from the more important task of aid, two main arguments may be offered for development education. Firstly, it is not feasible or even desirable to envisage the involvement of large numbers of people from industrialized countries in actual development projects in developing countries. Other forms of involvement are available and include pressure group activities in the home community to examine forms of aid and to press for more aid, the examination of the policies of the home government in relationship to developing countries and the analysis of the ways in which attitudes and practices in a developed country affect other countries, e.g. levels of consumption of various resources.

1/ AD/FAO-UNESCO. In-School Development Education in the Industrialized Countries. Report on a Six-Country Comparative Study carried out by IRFED. Rome, AD/FAO, 1974

2/ AD/FAO-SODEPAX. Funding Agencies and Development Education. Report on a Western European Workshop held at Frascati (Italy), June 1972. Rome, AD/FAO, 1972.

3/ AD/FAO-ILO. Workers' Education and the Third World. Some ideas and suggestions from a European Workshop held at Sørmarka, Norway, May 1973. Rome, AD/FAO, 1973.

4/ AD/FAO. Commodity Campaigns and the Third World : An Evaluation of Education and Action Programmes in Europe. Rome, AD/FAO, 1974.

5/ AD/FAO. Education for Development and the Sâhel. An assessment of NGO documents and reports: November 1974. Rome, AD/FAO, 1974.

Secondly, development is not merely an aspect of developing countries. It applies to individuals and to minority and underprivileged groups within a developed society, and is in fact the most crucial issue facing mankind today. Therefore, development education is concerned with man and society, with bringing individuals to an awareness of themselves and the world in which they live, in order that they may be able to play an active part in that world. This process has come to be know as conscientizaçao or "conscientization" as it has been translated into English. It is a concept which has been popularized by the followers of Paolo Freire. Essentially, it refers to a process of awakening individuals, of bringing them to a state of awareness about their environment and the place which they occupy in it, of the forces which are acting on them, and of the provision of a framework and techniques by which they may become active subjects in social processes. 1/

Methodology

The survey consisted of four phases:

1. An attempt to identify institutions and individuals carrying out development education programmes, and contacting them to arrange interviews.

2. Interviewing of individuals. This took place during June to August 1974.

3. Writing for information where interviews were not possible either for lack of time or absence of key personnel (unfortunately the interview period coincided with the summer vacation period in Europe), or because the existence of an institution or programme was brought to my attention after interviews had taken place in that area. Annex I lists the institutions and organizations visited and/or contacted during the survey.

4. Analysis of material and writing the report.

The basis for selection of interviews was an attempt to gain an overview of the diversity within any one country, and to try to see at least one institution in each country which seemed to best exemplify development education as it will be defined in Chapter I. In almost every case, an institution was selected for inclusion only if two independent persons recommended it. The particular selection of both countries and institutions had to be made on the basis of time and money available and the ability of one person to visit them and to conduct interviews (English, French and German were used), in the case of those actually visited, and wherever possible this was supplemented by contact by mail. The analysis has been made on the basis of interviews, written comments, and documents.

Interviews were semi-structured with an attempt to elicit the following information:

i. when the development education activities were initiated and their aims;
ii. number of staff involved and their backgrounds and experience;
iii. number of students involved and their country of origin;
iv. nature of research being undertaken and the personnel involved in it;
v. sources of main funds for different aspects of the work;
vi. the nature of the work undertaken including both content and level of courses, and methods, especially teaching methods;
vii. the nature and extent of contacts with developing countries for any aspect of the work;
viii. any other comments.

1/ Freire, Paolo: Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Penguin Books, 1972.

Limitation

A survey which attempts to cover Europe, North America and Australia, by one person in a limited time period, obviously has many omissions and weaknesses. It does not claim to be comprehensive but rather representative, an effort having been made to cover fully the institutions in the sample, and to give both an analysis of these as well as an overview of the situation regarding development education in each country. In addition to post-secondary institutions, voluntary agencies were also contacted, especially where it was known that students and/or staff were involved; government ministries and agencies, especially ministries of education and aid agencies. It is in fact difficult to cut off a sector of a society for special study, since prevailing values and attitudes in society will affect the nature and function of institutions within it, in some cases particular institutional or informal activities being a direct reaction against public opinion or an attempt to counteract and change it.

Evaluation is also extremely difficult. It requires more detailed information, and in-depth interviews with participants in programmes, which was not possible within the scope of this survey. Further, the question of evaluation of efforts in different socio-cultural settings, using varying interpretations of development education, raises methodological questions which are part of the ongoing debate in comparative education. The evaluations made here are rather in terms of a model of development education which will be outlined in a later chapter, so that general approaches rather than specific programmes are being evaluated.

Appreciation

Finally, the assistance and cooperation of many people made this survey possible. To all those people who gave time for interviews or answering letters and providing information, my warm thanks are extended. In particular, I would like to express my deep gratitude to those who suggested contacts, arranged interviews, provided hospitality and otherwise helped and encouraged me: Mr. S. Chidambaranathan (General Secretary, World University Service, Geneva) and Mrs Nathan; Mr. Brian Mac Call (Action for Development, FAO, Rome); Professor Ed Beauchamp (Educational Foundations, University of Hawaii, Honolulu); Mr. Harold Wilkinson (Quaker Office at the UN, New York) and Nancy Wilkinson; Chuck Aanensen (University of Indiana); Charles Rivera (University of Denver); Mr. Richard Downie (Foreign Students' Adviser, Michigan State University) and Mrs. Downie; the staff of MIND (New York and San Francisco); George Richardson (Toronto); Mrs. Kaye Thompson and Mr. and Mrs. George Tillman (Canadian WUS, Ottawa); Mr. and Mrs. Alan Phillips (UK WUS); Mr. Robin Richardson (One World Trust, London); M. Jean-Marie Schwartz (French WUS); Mr. and Mrs. Armand Sliepen (Netherlands WUS); Frau Manina Lassen-Grzech and Fräulein Bärbel Helwig (German WUS); Dr. Christoph Wulf (Deutsches Institut für Pädagogische Forschung, Frankfurt); Mr. Roger Eggleston (WHO Regional Office, Copenhagen) and Mandy Eggleston; Professor Stig Lindholm (Institute for Education, Stockholm University); Fru Inga Löwdin (Adviser, National Board of Education, Stockholm); Dr. Heinz Schütte (Dept. of Sociology, La Trobe University, Australia); Professor Herb Feith (Centre for Southeast Studies, Monash University, Australia) and Mr. Alan Wilkinson (Research School of Pacific Studies, Australian National University, Canberra).

The survey would not have been possible without the permission of Prof. Brian Crittenden, Dean, School of Education, La Trobe University, and Dr. Ronald Price, Chairman, Centre for Comparative and International Studies in Education, La Trobe University and to them, to my colleagues who took on extra duties to enable me to get away for a term, and to my students whose patience and support have been remarkable, my grateful thanks are offered. For the assistance of Ms Angela Crace in analyzing data, Mrs. Therese McNeil who typed most of the voluminous correspondence and Ms Mary Lawlor of Action for Development/FAO who typed the final report, my warmest appreciation is recorded.

Robin Burns
Melbourne

February 1975

CHAPTER I

DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION AND POST-SECONDARY INSTITUTIONS

Development education is increasingly used as a term to describe a wide range of topics and approaches. In North America, it tends most frequently to mean education in developing countries, and "global" or "international perspectives in education" is used to describe what is elsewhere referred to as "development education".

Lengthy discussions of different definitions can become a fruitless exercise. The various ways in which development education is defined reflect in many instances basic differences in approach, both to development and to education. As a lowest common denominator, development education can be said to be any attempt to make people more aware of social diversity and the reasons for this, with special emphasis on problems such as poverty, ill-health, illiteracy and unemployment, which are particularly prevalent in the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America. Beyond this, efforts and interests diverge.

The purpose of this chapter is to trace some concepts of development and development education, and to look at the ways in which this has been interpreted and practised in higher education. "Higher" or "tertiary" education is used for post-secondary education, particularly for universities, colleges of advanced education and teacher training institutions.

Education and Individual Development

In the first half of this century, many people were convinced that the provision of education at all levels would ensure that the hopes of people for a better world would be fulfilled. But they have not been realized. Education has created new, socially privileged élites, and has widened the gap between those who are able to survive in the system and those for whom education is a personally frustrating experience, raising hopes with its promises, which cannot be fulfilled. 1/ This has led to a crisis of confidence in education, especially in higher education. It has become increasingly evident that educational institutions are often conservative elements in society, dedicated to the socialization of new members of society into the prevailing social system, including the hierarchical organization and the values associated with this, reinforcing and preserving that system. There is evidence that schools are not the major factor contributing to the development of the child, and schooling cannot incontrovertibly be declared a "good thing". 2/

A distinction must be made between education as a process of learning which continues throughout life, and what goes on in formal educational institutions. Ideally, the latter is an integral part of the wider process. But insofar as the institutions are governed by the prevailing values and attitudes of society, they may in fact operate against education in the broader sense and certainly fail to take into account individual and sub-

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1/ Holmes, B. & Scanlon, D.G. (eds). World Yearbook of Education, 1971-2, London, Evans Bros. Ltd., 1971.

2/ Curle, A. Educational Problems in Developing Nations, New York, NY, Praeger, 1966.

11

cultural differences. The most cogent critics of formal educational institutions are Ivan Illich and Everett Reimer. Reimer maintains that they have four main functions: custodial care of the young for ever-increasing lengths of time; the sorting of the young into the social slots they will occupy in adult life; indoctrination into certain prescribed values, and finally, the teaching of cognitive skills and the transmission, even the creation, of knowledge. The last occupies decreasingly important amounts of time in most education systems. 1/

Illich takes this further and argues that education has become yet another item of consumption in a consumption-oriented society. Schooling thus decreases the choices of the individual, reproducing the established order regardless of the political tenor of that order. It is an initiation ritual into a society which is oriented towards the progressive consumption of increasingly less tangible and more expensive services - a society which Illich maintains is proving itself unworkable. 2/ This represents a form of consciousness as well as a social organization that is basically underdeveloped. 3/ He goes on to state that schools as such have lost their legitimacy to determine competence, and that society must be "de-schooled" if society, and with it the learning process, is to survive.

While this perhaps represents an extreme viewpoint, in many other ways the nature of education and its effects on the individual is undergoing serious re-consideration throughout the world. Today's proponents of "new education" have rightly re-asserted the responsibility of education for helping individuals in their struggle for personal satisfaction and for better interpersonal relationships. They must also prepare individuals to act effectively in society. This in turn implies the need to evolve a more coherent philosophy of man, and his place in the world. As John Dewey puts it:

> "the problem is not whether the schools should participate in the production of a future society, but whether they should do it blindly or with the maximum possible of courageous intelligence and responsibility". 4/

Education and Society

Education cannot be divorced from society, since the society not only provides the intellectual and value framework within which education takes place, but also limits the means available for individual learning. The extent to which individuals are able to participate in education is determined by society in economic terms through the amount of money made available for education, and in value terms through the barriers to, and rewards for, different amounts and varieties of education. Those who reach the stage of higher education comprise an élite which by its very nature is different to the population at large.

There is both a growth component and a welfare component in the social role of education. As former Deputy Director-General of Unesco has stated:

> "I believe that education has a key role, a causal one, in development. It promotes development in two ways, which are part of the growth component of the development equation. First, education provides the specific skills needed for the proper performance of a number of occupations. Second, it creates, influences and conditions the socio-cultural framework which is an indispensable element of the infrastructure for development ... It is also part of the welfare component - the levels of living which are, in the end, the goal of all development". 5/

1/ Reimer, E. School is Dead, Penguin Books, 1971.
2/ Illich, I. "The Breakdown of Schools", in Interchange, Vol. 2, No. 4, 1971.
3/ Illich, I. in Castel, H. (ed.) World Development, Macmillan Co., 1971.
4/ Dewey, J. "Educational and Social Change", in Hanson, K.W. & Brembeck, C.E. (eds.) Education and the Development of Nations, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966.
5/ Adiseshiah, M. Education and Culture in the Service of Development, Geneva, ICVA, 1968.

Thus education may still play a vital part in the development of a society, but if it is to do this effectively, the education system must not only prepare individuals for their social role, but also prepare them to survive in today's and tomorrow's world, which implies providing them not only with specific skills but with attitudes and values which enable them to maintain a critical approach to society and the courage needed to work for its change.

Education for International Understanding: Development Education

Recognizing the responsibility which education has, not only towards the individual and his society, but towards the world as a whole, since the revolution in technology and mass communications as well as the growing interdependence of nations, implies that we are indeed living in a "global village", an underlying principle of all education should be preparation of the individual for life. This means "teaching which takes into account the real world around us, and which should be a normal, integrated part of all education". 1/

"Education for international understanding" is the term which is favoured today for such an approach. I will use it synonymously with "development education". This term has been applied more narrowly to teaching about the so-called developing or Third World countries. However, I would argue that development is not something which is a distinguishing characteristic of technologically advanced nations with a high Gross National Product and rate of economic growth, a high level of literacy, employment and specialization of institutions. Such a characterization of development is based mainly on economic factors, implies a simple continuum along which societies may be ranked from "most" to "least" developed, ignores causal factors other than economic, in making a society what it is at any particular point in history, promotes limited, categorized thinking and fails to take into account either the pockets of underdevelopment in so-called developed nations or the notion of overdevelopment which argues that a continuation of the present life-style and policies of developed nations is disastrous for their own and world survival. 2/

> "The fundamental task involved in development education is the urgent need to enable people to acquire an open mind to the problems of their age. ... It depends on making information available, encouraging people to form critical and moral judgements and enabling them to participate in such changes as they believe appropriate to their own skills and interests. It involves their own development as individuals, as well as that of society as a whole". 3/

Teaching about development and the world around us are not optional extras, or a neat topic which can be put in a compartment and dealt with in a watertight fashion. If our concern in the educational process is with the development of individuals and with enabling them to find their place in the world, then development education is an integral part of the entire educational system, and is the starting point of all teaching rather than something which may be added at the end.

This will require a new educational approach, one which encourages people to become active and participating members of society. It is at the level of action or preparation for action that a new approach is most urgently required.

1/ FAO/AD-UNESCO. Development Education: The School open to the Third World. Report on a European Development Education Workshop held at Bergendal (Sweden). Rome, FAO/AD, 1970.

2/ A Guide to Student Action for Development. Geneva, WUS/ISMUN, 1971.

3/ FAO/AD-UNESCO: op. cit.

Hindrances

Apart from overall institutional barriers, the following hindrances to development education can be recognized:

1. This relates to our own limited experience. Structures of thinking are conditioned by the experiences of the individual. These experiences are then projected onto foreign situations, so that we see them through our own eyes and experiences, rather than appreciating them in their own contexts. 1/ In order to overcome this, the structures and methods of thinking about these things, and questions which are foreign to the individual, must be made a subject of reflection from the earliest possible time in education. Teachers as well as students are the products of the educational system and of individual limited experience, and therefore teachers too need to re-examine their prejudices and attitudes before attempting to communicate wider understandings to students.

2. Ignorance and prejudice go hand-in-hand. They are usually rooted in lack of education or unbalanced education, which may be perpetuated by the mass media. 2/ And we are not only dealing with ignorance and prejudice, but with an even more pervasive condition, that of apathy or indifference. Thus, in the teaching-learning situation, we are not only dealing with a variety of attitudes but with a profound indifference. Insofar as the attitudes of students reflect those of society, the social role of the teacher must also reach out to include that society from which the students come.

3. There are institutional constraints in the education process. These include narrow syllabuses, examination requirements, fragmented timetables and high teacher-student ratios. The last two in particular decrease the ability of the teacher to deal with material in a consistent and personal manner with small groups of students. 3/

4. Difficulties are raised by the nature of the material and resources related to it. There is an ever-increasing amount and level of sophistication in recent publications on development-related topics, and keeping up-to-date, as well as sifting and evaluating new material, is a problem. Material is offered in a competitive, market-place manner, which introduces strong biases in the selection made by both teachers and students.

5. Professional isolation may mean that individual teachers give up the struggle. Provision of opportunities to come together in small groups to grapple with the subject matter and with ways of presenting it to students, is vital. The net also needs to be spread wider, and it may be that voluntary agencies have an important role in assisting this process of communication.

Formation and Change of Attitudes

As with all aspects of education, development education involves the formation and change of beliefs, attitudes and behaviour.

In general, surveys of attitudes to development in the developed countries have indicated:

1/ Lindholm, S. Some Basic Considerations of Development Education. A paper delivered to the ACFOA Development Education Conference, Canberra, 1973.

2/ Lindholm, op. cit.

3/ British Schools and the Third World, London, VCOAD, 1971.

i. there is in general little knowledge of, or interest in, the topic;

ii. developing countries appear remote;

iii. attitudes are inconsistent, unstable and vague;

iv. a certain humanitarian goodwill is often expressed, based on moral considerations;

v. there is a positive correlation between amount of knowledge and the holding of positive attitudes. 1/

On the whole, then, we are involved in transforming a rather warm, woolly vacuum into something positive, and we need to apply good teaching-learning principles to this.

In order to do this, it is important to recognize that we are dealing with the formation of attitudes, and that these have three components - a cognitive or informational aspect, an affective or emotional aspect, and a behavioural or conative aspect. 2/ Attempts to impart or change attitudes which do not take into account all three aspects are unlikely to succeed.

One reason why we are not interested in the rest of the world is because much of what we do learn about it does not make sense. We read, for example, of overwhelming natural catastrophes or of curruption in high places. Basically, in order to make sense, information must be perceived to deal with something that concerns the individual, that is, it must make emotional sense to the individual. Only in this way can it become incorporated into an effective aspect of the individual's self-image. 3/ This in turn implies that the individual has some notion of the effectiveness of his actions in the world. The individual overcome by feelings of powerlessness will not only fail to make any effort on behalf of himself or of other people, but will also tend to reject information concerning the outside world as it enhances his powerlessness and threatens his tenuous personal stability and sense of identity.

Secondly, the information presented must have some coherence and pattern in order to be understandable. The old principle of proceeding from the known to the unknown is relevant here. By relating new information to what is known, and by presenting it in a structured form, it should then be possible not only to incorporate it into existing patterns of knowledge, but also to expand and change these patterns.

Thirdly, there must be room for action in order to establish new attitudes. This may simply involve a stimulus to seek out new information, but it may go well beyond this to actually testing new insights in a social situation. It is only in this way, by putting ideas into action, that it is possible to obtain the reinforcement necessary to make the new attitude a part of the individual's view of the world.

Thus it can be said that consciousness begins at home, with a personal involvement moving out beyond the immediate environment once the individual has some notion of his own personal responsibilities and ability to act.

The content of development education and the form in which it is presented is therefore vital. For example, an appeal to conscience alone may evoke an emotional response but does not involve the intellect, and the emotion may be so powerful and threatening that it precludes a further consideration of the whole issue. Further, it presupposes

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1/ Lindholm, S. The Image of the Developing Countries, Uppsala, Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, 1971.
Tiffen, R. Inquiry into Australian Opinion of Developing Countries, 1973.

2/ Warren, N. & Jahoda, M. (eds.) Attitudes, Penguin Books, 1973 (2nd ed.)

3/ Lindholm, op. cit.

a limited view of the issue, setting us aside from them, the other, which not only denies basic human dignity to the object of consideration but involves feelings of superiority and even dislike, which is counter-productive and detrimental to the whole attempt to bring about enlightened attitude change.

Goals

In order to touch the individual in his situation, and to lead him beyond it to the world at large, in a consistent and sustained way, it is essential to have clear goals in mind. These include:

1. The transmission of new ideas and knowledge swiftly and effectively.
2. The development of a realistic sense of identity, taking into account self-interest and discovering options beyond it. People need to understand themselves in relationship to their family, their social group, their nation and to the world. They need to be able to tolerate differences and to deal effectively with threats to their identity and stability.
3. The preparation for life in a global context. It is no longer adequate to prepare people for a stable world in which the individual has a fixed place. He must be able to make realistic appraisals of the world and of events in it, and to act accordingly.
4. The development of creative attitudes to diversity. People must be able to respond adaptively to differences and to integrate apparently conflicting ways and ideas. The achievement of a balance between individualism, patriotism and internationalism is extremely difficult, especially when it is complicated by factors such as racial differences, but it is essential to attempt to do this. 1/

Development Studies in the Post-colonial Era

Concern with development coincides with the closing of the colonial era and the emergence on the international arena of newly independent nations. Their problems, previously considered within the colonial framework, have been re-conceived as "development" rather than "civilization" or "progress". It is now recognized that, while they have gained their political independence, this has not been accompanied by economic independence, although this new dependence is no longer merely on the former colonial power but on the developed world, both "first" and "second", as a whole. With the onset of the post-colonial era, development has been seen as a problem which is inherent, to a greater or lesser degree, in the former colonial world and it is only recently that any analysis of development as a national problem has taken real cognizance of variation within a nation.

It is still not widely accepted that a society, which may overall be classified as developed, contains within it pockets of underprivileged whose position within the total society may be compared with that of developing nations in the world at large. This recognition has come about through a focussing on political and social, as well as economic factors, as the basis for, and goal of, development. The tendency has been in many instances to focus away from developing countries to problems within a developed country, without examining the link between the two and the effect of the developed countries on the developing ones.

The nature of development studies has undergone a similar conceptual change. In the colonial era, it could be argued that development studies consisted of social anthropology/sociology, economics, political science, geography, history and even languages, where the main interest within each discipline was in Asia, Africa and Latin America.

1/ Smart, R. "The Goals and Definitions of International Education", in The International Role of the University, Geneva, WUS, 1968.

These studies were not exclusively confined to a single discipline, as evidenced by such institutions as the London School of Oriental and African Studies. The area of study, however, was closely linked to the colonies of the country in question, with the exception of the United States of America.

Given this background, the question therefore arises as to whether the proliferation of development studies in the past decade or so is merely an increase in the number of places at which such studies may be pursued, with the expansion in numbers of interested students reflecting a trend away from more traditional disciplines and the trendiness of studying development, or whether a significant difference between the old and the new is apparent.

The widespread availability of development studies is shown in three recent publications put out by the Development Centre of the OECD. 1/ They list 4 institutes of development studies in Canada, 21 in the USA, 88 in Western Europe and the UK, and 8 in socialist countries. These only include institutes devoted entirely to development studies, which responded to the OECD questionnaire and provided sufficient information to be considered eligible for inclusion in the publications, and in most cases information beyond 1971 was not available!

In 1970 the Canadian International Development Agency and the Association of Canadian Universities and Colleges sponsored a study of "Canadian Universities and International Development". 2/ Using the three criteria of courses dealing in any way with developing countries, the presence of students from developing countries for whom some special arrangements have been made; and staff with experience in developing countries, 28 Canadian institutions can be considered to offer some form of development studies, although the OECD Directory only lists 4.

Similarly, a study in the Netherlands undertaken in 1974 by the Institute of International Studies at the University of Leiden initially surveyed 30 institutes which they considered to be undertaking international studies. 3/ They define international studies as being one of the following: international studies in the narrow sense, brought together under the label international relations/peace research; studies of integration processes; studies of development both in a national and international setting, and geographical area studies. Their preliminary report covers 24 institutes, not all of which are directly related to a university, with data to be completed on a further 4, whereas the OECD Directory only lists 5.

Similar findings are likely to appear from a survey which was undertaken late in 1974 in the UK.

It is apparent from the foregoing that development studies constitute a wide range of activities and that certain differences in orientation occur between countries. For the time being, development studies are considered both within a particular discipline and as an inter-disciplinary study which may be pursued in a separate centre or institute, either formally attached to a university or at least semi-autonomous. It is the purpose of a later section of this paper to attempt to distinguish different models but at this point it may be of interest to postulate some reasons for differences in approach between nations.

1/ "Directory of development research and training institutes in North America", in OECD Liaison Bulletin, No. 1, 1974; "Directory of development research and training institutes in Europe", in OECD Liaison Bulletin, Nos. 2 & 3, 1974.

2/ Walmsley, Norma: Canadian Universities and International Development, Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1970.

3/ Everts, P.P. A Survey of International Studies in the Netherlands, Leiden, 1974.

These differences seem to fall into three basic but inter-related categories:

1. Historical, in terms of the relationship between the appearance of centres focusing on a particular area and the existence of colonies of "special interests" in that area.

2. Political, in terms of the sources of funds and the reasons for the funding of development studies, which are closely tied to aid/foreign policy, in the case of government funding, or to commercial interests.

3. Educational - there are three main aspects leading to differences between nations:

   i. The philosophy of education. This is the basis for establishing the nature and purpose of education, which in turn affects both the structure and function of the university and other educational institutions. It includes the balance, ideal, perceived and actual, between theory and practice in education, which usually has a philosophical rationalization even if the basis is predominantly pragmatic.

   ii. Ease of educational change. This is to some extent inversely related to the depth/strength of historical tradition, and may affect the development of educational institutions as a whole, or of particular ones, with newer institutions being more flexible and innovative. The relationship between education and society is another relevant factor affecting ease of change. Even in an age where the restlessness of youth, coupled with the "education explosion", could be expected to lead to widespread change in the nature and function of higher education, the degree and rate of change, as well as its direction, seems to depend on philosophical, historical and social factors, and the position in society of those pressing for change. The internal structure of an institution will also affect significantly the degree of change.

   iii. The relationship between higher education and government. This is mainly expressed in terms of finance, which will affect the recruitment of staff and students, the freedom to innovate, which reflects in turn not only the relationship with government but the disposition of that government and its attitudes to education, at both an institutional and individual level, and the nature and direction of change, if any. Most change seems to have taken place where there is a strong "buffer" such as a Universities' Commission, on which government participates as a minority element, between universities and government.

Development Studies: Varieties of Approach

Not only is development a concept which is bandied around with increasing frequency, but the concept itself has undergone a number of changes which, as has already been shown, was given impetus by the emergence of the post-colonial era. Rather than attempt to define development, I recognize the varieties of definition and would place at one end of a continuum those definitions which emphasize development as a unilineal process with a monocausal base, most often considered economic, which order societies along some scale from "least" to "most" developed. At the other end, development is considered multi-causal, determined by social and political as well as economic factors within and between societies. It may be applied to different groups within a society as well as to the differences between societies, and it is not unilineal. Rather, those developed societies which have customarily been considered at the top of the developed, scale have achieved their current status through a particular historical process, and other societies are not only subject to different processes, both because of their own history and the period at which they have been subject to most rapid change, have different development models and alternative development paths open to them.

Development studies reflect this variety in understanding of the nature of development. At the start of the 1960s, the function of development studies or those studies which I would maintain are the historical forerunners of development studies, served three main functions:

i. the training of people for service in the colonies;

ii. the training of small numbers of students from the colonies;

iii. the provision of a legitimate and almost academically respectable, if rather exotic, field of study for people who were simply interested in the field, without necessarily wishing to pursue a related career.

These functions, in slightly altered form, continue to exist today. Thus:

i. the training of people to work overseas either in government, voluntary or intergovernmental agencies, or private enterprise;

ii. the training, at least until very recently, of increasing numbers of students from developing countries;

iii. the provision of options of study of basically academic and/or personal interest alone.

In terms of these three functions of development studies, it can be said:

i. There have been some changes in the training function. Where this was carried out in a tertiary institution, decolonization has in some cases meant the cessation of such courses, or the transformation of separate institutions into more general centres open to tertiary students, or the establishment of new courses or change of others to accommodate the new clientele. In evaluative terms, the main positive change has been an increased recognition of the need for training for expatriates, not only in their future occupation but in cultural, including language, aspects of the area of their future assignment. This is to some extent a reflection of the tendency to view the university increasingly as vocational or practical in purpose.

ii. This reflects a continued recognition of foreign qualifications as in some way superior to local ones and of overseas training as an important part of aid/foreign policy. Both assumptions are challengeable. The first tends to promote élitism and individual advancement without regard to, or even at the expense of, national needs. In the case of study overseas because particular courses are not available at home, this practice may be defended, but only in those cases, and factors such as age at which students commence overseas study, the nature of the social obligation at home attendant on overseas study, assistance which they are given with personal adjustment and adaptation and transfer of training on return home need to be seriously weighed. In terms of aid, it can be argued that much more effective aid would be the sending of persons to developing countries to assist in the establishment of relevant courses there, or provision of third country training opportunities within the region, would be far more effective both in extending training openings to the greatest numbers, and in ensuring social relevance for that training.

It is significant that anything approaching development studies existed in the developed world long before they were established in developing countries, a phenomenon which has come to be known as educational imperialism and which signifies the relatively low priority of the provision of relevant training in the aims of overseas study programmes. While total cessation of overseas training cannot be advocated without some qualification, it should be recognized that it may be of more value to individuals than to societies, and that it will only contribute positively to international understanding if more effort is made to integrate overseas students into host communities.

iii. It could be argued that the more options of study, the more likely any individual will be to find something that suits his or her tastes and interests, and that the current extension of development studies contributes to this. However, this depends on one's view of the learning process and the place of development studies in this.

The Functions of the University relevant to Development Studies

There are four major aspects of the university or other tertiary educational institution which are relevant in considering their role in development.

1. Research into problems of development, including economics, education, agriculture, technology and nutrition. This may be carried out under contract to government, voluntary or international agencies; it may be private research not directly related to an ongoing project, or it may be carried out through links with a university in a developing country. It will mostly involve staff members and to a lesser extent, graduate students, although the latter may be working mainly towards a degree and therefore be more theoretically than practically oriented.
2. Training of individuals to work in development. This has already been dealt with in the previous section.
3. Training of personnel from developing countries. Again, this was dealt with in the previous section.
4. Provision of courses which include development as a topic in some form or other. The aim in this category is usually to acquaint students with a theoretical framework for study of particular cases and is essentially academic in nature. Development is regarded as a phenomenon to be studied because of its intrinsic interest.

Development Studies versus Development Education

The first three categories constitute development studies rather than development education. They cannot, however, be dismissed from further consideration. They are all well-entrenched in higher education, and when one talks of "harnessing university resources for development", this is what is usually meant. It is for these categories that money is more readily available, from all sources. Implicit in such funding is the notion that the role of the university is to provide trained manpower for service in, or solving the problems of developing countries. This approach is valid insofar as research is important in the solution of problems, and the provision of trained manpower is also relevant. To some extent it fulfils two further functions, in bringing together people for the solution of problems which are global in dimensions, contributing both to the ideal of "the community of scholars" and the concept of the social responsibility of education.

However, its validity is limited.

1. It ignores the political reality of international relations and aid. Increasingly, it is being recognized that aid from a recipient to a donor reproduces the kind of relationships which existed between colony and colonizer, which mainly benefitted the colonizer.

2. The danger is ever-present that the foreign experts will design solutions to problems which are not really applicable to a developing country or which imply a model of economic, social and political change based on that of the cultural tradition of the expert. This is again a form of neo-imperialism, and is reinforced by the training of students from developing countries in a different cultural milieu, and even by the establishment in a developing country of an educational institution which was designed in and for a developed country. The terms "cultural" and "educational imperialism" have been ascribed to these processes, and stripped of the emotion that the terms tend to evoke, it can be seen that the

likelihood of replication of ideas and structures which may not be suited to the socio-cultural history and aims of a developing country is a likely outcome. This is reinforced when the high-level manpower to fill important positions in developing countries has been foreign-trained.

3. The emphasis on both high-level manpower and the framework within which their skills are put to use has two important by-products. The first emphasizes élitism. While a high level of training and skill is relevant to development in a number of ways, it often implies a level far removed from the mass of the population. University people are removed from society by the fact of their education, and there is a likelihood that the kinds of solutions that they devise for society will involve the conditions and technology to which they have become accustomed, and which may be not only too expensive and rely too heavily on support staff and services available only in a relatively modern city, but which are also so far removed from the experience and understanding of the people that they are inoperable.

The modus operandi of university people is also élitist, since at the least they will work through their colleagues in a similar institution, and more often through government. Their ability to affect the lives of people will depend not only on their ability to listen to and communicate with them but on the extent to which the government with which they are working is in touch with, and genuinely concerned about, the people in the rural areas and urban slums, as well as with those who have become sufficiently modernized to have some real power, at least as a sentient electorate. The best-willed expert, who is himself in touch with people and able to work with them and transfer his expertise into a different cultural milieu, may still be frustrated and ineffective if he is limited to working within a government plan which is designed for limited sectors of the population.

There are two further complicating factors. It is probably true that some of the more radical re-thinking about development has come from developed countries. This includes an appreciation of the dangers of over-development and of developing countries following in the steps of the developed ones. However, so successful has been the conversion of those in power in developing countries to the goals of developed ones, that the voices of dissident Westerners about the need for alternative development paths is interpreted as yet another attempt to keep them down and prescribe different models for them. This is a real dilemma, although there are indications that the current generation of young educated people in developing countries are also realizing the dangers in accepting a foreign model and are themselves calling for alternative approaches.

The other complication is related to this, particularly where research workers from developed countries have by-passed government and worked in association with dissidents in a developing country. The consequences are often the refusal to grant study-visas when requested for independent research, to take strong repressive measures against local dissidents considered to have associated with the foreign "trouble-makers" and for the government of the foreigners to consider that they are subverting its own aid efforts and even bilateral relationships. Scholars, students and people from voluntary agencies, among whose main strengths is the ability to by-pass government in their efforts, are all subject to such action. Another dilemma in cooperative efforts is posed, since the ability to do any work may be severely curtailed if they can be seen as subversive, and the tendency may be, thus, to fall into line in order to carry on working.

4. This is a danger which is not unique to university people. The emphasis is all too frequently on "problems out there" and on isolated or limited aspects of the question. There are various factors which contribute to such an approach: the linking to aid programmes and hence to the solution of a particular problem; the division of study into separate disciplines which emphasize analysis rather than synthesis; and in a sense, a particular interpretation of the Judaeo-Christian ethic still underlying the social philosophy of most Westerners, of us, the privileged and powerful, out of charity, helping them, the poor and powerless. This is even watered down so that it becomes a matter of our self-interest to help them, because someone else of whom we disapprove might get in, and because aid establishes political and economic bonds which have usually proved to be for

the benefit of the more powerful partner. Thus, both the present state of research, emphasizing the micro-aspects of a subject, and the nature of aid, have imposed limited understandings of the nature of development.

Changes in the world economic situation, particularly as it affects the developed countries of the first world, and in the ethnic and social compositions of their populations, are assisting the re-definition of development. A new look at national economic problems and a general turning inwards, is apparent. The poor in the developed countries are also becoming poorer, and some attention is being focussed onto "pockets of underdevelopment" here. This provides a basis for examining social processes within and between societies, seeing connections between these in different social settings. The concept of development is being internationalized, and while it may be that a period of inwardlooking is necessary to apply models of analysis to developed countries which have formerly been applied exclusively to developing ones, a more universalistic outlook is becoming possible. The interdependence of people is being seen in a new light and change, in which isolationism may no longer be an option, is under way.

A further factor in this relates to arms, including nuclear armaments. The Cold War is over and hence the stimulus for anxious concern to avoid a nuclear holocaust has been weakened. But with more and more countries joining the nuclear club, with wars of "insurgency" and national liberation continuing to be fought, with the state of Soviet-American arms limitation talks, and with the spiralling cost of arms, especially in relation to scarce resources, coupled with shifting rules of international trade and politics, the whole area of peace and conflict studies is also taking on new dimensions and may be seen more clearly in a development context.

A second change is in the increasing interest in multi or interdisciplinary studies. This is being assisted by the appearance of new subjects which are essentially interdisciplinary - environment studies, women's studies, community studies and so on. These in turn are related to social problems of increasingly felt urgency and are hence fairly well rooted in practical issues. These new subject areas can pave the way for a more truly integrated approach both in theory and in practice, to such issues as social change, international relationships, distribution of resources, planning, and alternative technology. The danger is that the new subjects, after the initial zeal has worn off, may undergo a period of concern about their academic status and respectability, which in the past has almost invariably meant a narrowing of the field and of approaches to studying it.

The third change is in aid. The aftermath of the first UN Development Decade has shown the ineffectiveness of certain traditional forms of aid. Tied aid, and the burden of servicing old loans, has become more clearly seen as a means to ensure greater and greater bondage for some developing countries. Aid without trade, and without adequate channels to the people who most need it, have been recognized as of limited effectiveness. The "bargaining power" of some developing countries, who possess scarce resources, and the power of block voting by developing countries in the United Nations, has shocked many developed aid-givers. This has not led so far to sweeping changes, but there is a general disenchantment with the whole aid business, and some recognition that the aid recipients should have a critical say in the forms of aid which they regard as of highest priority. Effective changes still need to be introduced, but the climate is set for a fresh approach to aid, one which may be more effectively based on help-to-self-help, and more flexible forms of aid. This is a response to a changed socio-political and economic reality, and stimulates further evaluation and revision of the meaning of development.

There is a new sense of urgency about development. The so-called "oil crisis" has hit developed and developing countries alike, although the least developed have suffered most acutely. Natural disasters of staggering proportions have undone many gains in the development field, especially in agriculture. Focus on issues such as race relations, the human environment, population, and food, has increased awareness of these situations in a global perspective. The increase in migrant labour, especially from the poorer countries of Southern Europe, is now colliding with rising unemployment.

And alongside all of this, the message of a better life has come home to roost, and the failure of national and international plans, except in increasing the expectations of the people, is leading to increasing frustration and to direct action by the people. It would be ridiculous to say that the revolution is at hand, but there is a new sense of urgency about worldwide situations, which alongside the rhetoric and the retreat into localized solutions, provides a climate of opinion where change becomes not only desirable as some future goal, but a matter of survival for planet earth. And while the dimensions of the problem are overwhelming, so that retreat becomes the only possibility for individual survival for many, the whole development dilemma can no longer be ignored.

Development Education

It was stated that the first three categories of university activities in development are concerned with development studies but not with development education. This is a direct result of still-prevalent thinking which considers that development is a problem for developing countries and that the role of developed countries is to provide various forms of material aid, including trained manpower. Although it is rarely built into such an approach, there is however a potential for development education:

i. at the level of information - research increases knowledge at least of factual matters;

ii. through direct contact by research workers with people in the situations which they are studying - through their preparation for field-work and their participation in it, such knowledge gained may go well beyond the merely factual;

iii. through the use of research - unless of a "pure nature" - as a basis for action by others, (even if those actually undertaking the research do not take part in implementing the findings, the research can keep this action element in mind). Limiting factors on the extent of the involvement of the research worker in implementation are again structural and related to the agency funding the research, their aims and their contacts with those who will put the findings to use;

iv. through the actual training of individuals (apart from the narrow provision of skills for a job) to work in development tasks. This is development education at least of an information-transmission kind. Again, it may be much more than this, depending on such factors as contact with people from developing countries (or vice versa in the case of foreign students), the orientation to the task, whether or not language training and cultural orientation is included, the framework within which the training is carried out and oriented to future work, and so on. The way in which the training takes place, from an educational viewpoint, is also important, both for individual development and for setting patterns for future modes of working;

v. through the training of overseas students. This applies to the students themselves, in terms of the wider experience which they gain. They can also contribute to the education of their hosts, if opportunities are provided. This will depend on the pressure to succeed, whether or not they feel free to make contacts, their personal security while overseas so that they can mix freely with the host community, the attitudes of that community to foreigners, and the sorts of contacts encouraged, for example, through participation in informal activities, accommodation, invitations to speak to campus and community groups, and so on.

This development education aspect is, however, not built into these activities automatically nor is it seen as an important aspect of them. Development education is seen, rather, as an optional extra, and this is related to the history of development education. It has been closely linked with aid, and with the need to provide information about aid projects to encourage people to provide more money. Approaches have varied from the highly emotional "starving child" image, to the highly intellectual. It was largely considered "public relations" and money was provided from publicity funds for it; literature, films and speakers being the main methods used. It is only really in the last five years that development education has gained any status as a justifiable activity in an for itself, and both governments and agencies still have to convince donors that the spending of money to educate people is a valid use of aid funds, since it is still generally felt that all money given for aid should go to actual projects in developing countries.

That battle continues in varying degrees in different countries, although examples may be given from all countries included in the survey where either government or non-governmental organizations or both are spending increasing amounts on education about development. In many cases, it is still closely tied to actual aid projects and concentrates on either an appeal to conscience, or persuasion through presentation of "the facts". However, there is also a movement towards recognition of development education as an activity that is an essential part of education, which is in turn a lifelong process, that the issues involved in development do not divide neatly into fields of study or the problems of particular countries, and that the way in which learning about development takes place is an essential feature of development education.

This new approach to development education has so far had little effect on development studies at the tertiary level. Most of the efforts being undertaken in institutions of higher learning combine a strong factual/theoretical approach to the subject matter with methods of teaching which are concerned primarily with transmission of knowledge from the learned to the ignorant, and the success of the process is evaluated in terms of performance in examinations or set assignments. Aspects which go beyond these confines are seen as bonuses, and come about through the efforts of individual teachers and students and the extent to which the structures enable an individual and innovative approach. Most development studies which come under the heading of "general courses which include development" are therefore similar to the other university activities in the field of development. There are many barriers to new approaches, and even the provision of special funds may not be sufficient to overcome traditional prejudices against change in traditional subject fields, standards and methods of study.

The result is that in most cases, those sorts of innovation of both subject-matter and methods of study which are the hallmarks of development education in its fullest sense, are resisted or barely tolerated, and this has led some people to comment that because of its very nature, development education and formal higher education are incompatible. However, since there are a variety of ways in which tertiary education contains opportunities for development education, and is in fact engaging in various models of it, and since it is still considered that the university has an important role in research and the provision of high-level skilled manpower, it cannot be ignored and simply written off from the viewpoint of changing the nature of its development education efforts.

The elaboration of ten models of approach to development education at the tertiary level and an evaluation of them, appear in Chapters III and IV.

CHAPTER II

NATIONAL IMPRESSIONS

Introduction

While sweeping generalizations are often dangerous, and hide the specificities and exceptions which are often of greatest interest and significance, in the course of this suvey impressions were formed and provide a background for the detailed analysis which follows.

The most over-riding generalization is that institutions of higher education lag far behind other educational institutions in innovation, leadership or even active involvement in and commitment to development education. Considering the general nature of these institutions, this is perhaps not so surprising. From an educational point of view, it can be said that atttitudes, including those towards other people culturally and socially different to oneself, are fairly firmly established in the early adolescent years. They are not unchangeable, else all attempts to influence people after this period would be fruitless, which is clearly untrue. But general directions have been set, and when particular attitudes have become established first in the home, and then throughout the school years, it is certainly difficult to change them by the time the individual enters a tertiary institution.

Secondly, there is no clear evidence that formal learning processes are significant in the formation and change of attitudes. Family, and later peer groups, as well as society at large, especially through the mass media, all influence the individual and mostly to a greater degree than formal teaching situations.

Thirdly, higher education is overwhelmingly formal in its approach. Change in terms of teaching methods and assessment is not a feature of such institutions, even when they are to the forefront in criticizing these same factors in secondary and primary schools. In addition, the pressures of student numbers, which are still increasing in most countries, coupled with declining finance and the pressures on staff to regard teaching as only one of their functions, often one of low priority, means that in most cases the large lecture is still the core of teaching, and students fresh from the schools are easily overwhelmed by the impersonality, and increased formality, and are forced to find reference groups outside the formal educational structures. The pressures are also strong to concentrate on study and cut down on extra-curricular activities. The old image of the student as one who can dream or talk away the day and night, free from the responsibility to earn a living in order to "discover truth", is becoming a shrinking shadow of the reality.

Fourthly, the nature of higher education itself is being more and more seriously questioned. The traditional role of the university was to stand separate from society, dedicated to the pursuit of truth and by implication at least, to lead society in the generation of new ideas. Linked to this was the concept of academic freedom, in which students and teachers should be free from the pressures of government and other interest groups, in the directions and forms which their seeking after knowledge took. While these twin ideals were rarely realized, they have never been so seriously challenged as in the last thirty years. With increasing emphasis on economic growth and technological advance, pressure has been increasingly placed on the universities to train young people who will contribute to society in terms of skills acquired during study, and for the institutions themselves to undertake research for government and industry, with the sanction of the withholding of funds being ready for application should the institution fall out of step in other ways with the aims of the fund-givers.

The North American universities have tended to have a more directly vocational orientation than their European counterparts, and have been more explicit in recognizing the manpower training aspects of their role, but the European universities seem to be coming more into line with regard to this. Public funding, the establishment of a "second stream" of higher education with a vocational basis in the form of polytechnics, colleges of advanced education and other technical and professional training institutions which are seen as rivals if not yet equals to the universities, and the explosion in the demand for higher education, has forced the universities to re-examine their basis and the net result has been a greater "social relevance" for the university.

However, as more and more young people enter the university from the school systems, the inadequacies of the latter become more apparent in terms of preparing students for further study, and further, more young people see post-secondary education as essential for better job opportunities and little else. They are critical of present structures both in terms of the relative lack of job preparation at the university, and of the acquiescence of it to the prevailing social values, and their cry is a twofold one of relevance - relevance to their future careers, and to their perception of the future of their society, even although these two may be incompatible. This tends to strengthen the trend for the university to be more concerned with the future of its students and thus at that level increases its social responsibility. However, this seems in many instances to be defined in terms of relevance to the present social status quo, especially when coupled with engagement in research for government and industry. The overall result is that the university has lost its unique role, and in gaining social relevance, has in many instances done so at the cost of independence and critical ability to stand aside from society.

Even with increasing numbers of students undertaking tertiary education, they are still a small segment of society, and democratization of access to higher education has made little change in the recruitment of students, who still come predominantly from the urban middle class. In this aspect, there is little difference from other forms of tertiary education, the latter being seen as second best in terms of so-called intellectual skills. Although other forms of higher education are still vocationally oriented, however, with the introduction of liberal arts courses and compulsory humanities units for technical students, the distinctions between the two are becoming more blurred.

The purpose of this analysis has been to show, in terms of the nature of attitude change and of higher educational institutions, why they are perhaps ill-suited to producing ideas or people who are dedicated to the process of social change. This in turn is the antithesis of the main purpose of development education. It could therefore be expected that the efforts being undertaken in development education in tertiary institutions are more stereotyped and less innovative than in schools and community programmes.

This did in fact seem to be borne out by the survey. While it is the intention of this report to focus on models of approach, and not on "country studies", the following impressions are recorded to give some overall and generalized picture of development education in Europe, North America and Australia. It should be emphasized again that these impressions are based on visits to a sample of institutions, individual interviews and documents. Further, the comments relate to broad generalizations and only from time to time, specifically to those programmes actually included in the survey.

CANADA

There is considerable interest in developing countries here, and they are the subject of a variety of courses in a number of different disciplines, especially in political science/international relations and education. There are growing signs that the focus is changing from an exclusive emphasis on the Third World "out there", to consideration of Canadian policies towards developing countries and the effects of Canada on the Third World. Local questions - Canadian Indians, Eskimoes and immigrants - are increasingly considered, and not only in isolation but as examples of underdevelopment within a developed country, although at the level of formal courses, these connections are as yet relatively low key and it is more a case that different institutions or courses emphasize different aspects of underdevelopment.

As far as universities are concerned, the emphasis in undergraduate courses seems to be on academic study of "the facts" - historically, sociologically, politically, economically, geographically - and on "library research" as the most common means of study in addition to formal classes.

Post-graduate work varies, from a continuation of the basic under-graduate style to actual fieldwork in the communities being considered. There are some indications of a more "problem-solving" approach here, with a stimulus given by faculty members who have worked in developing countries, either in individual research or in aid projects, and students who have worked as volunteers or participated in projects organized by voluntary agencies. However, the "academic" predominates over the "action" or the "research/action" approach.

A similar situation exists with staff research, which is most often funded by the Canadian International Development Agency or by foundations. The main development education aspects are the spill-over of research experience into undergraduate teaching and graduate programmes, especially when graduates are involved as assistants in staff research.

Teaching is predominantly by lecture and seminar/tutorial/workshop discussion groups.

In many instances, more action and education oriented schemes have evolved from non-formal campus groups. These continue to involve staff and students, but the location and orientation is increasingly in and to the community. Learner Resource Centres 1/ are the best example. Materials - books, pamphlets, tapes, slides, films, etc. - are collected and the centres are not only available for individual use but provide special programmes and foci on a variety of development issues, and special attention may be given to providing resources for schools - speakers, library facilities, and curriculum units including audio-visual aids. In terms of outreach and involvement of individuals in research and action, these centres seem to provide the best example of university involvement in development education.

Turning to other forms of tertiary institution, greatest possibilities seem to exist in the Community Colleges. Less strictly bound by the race for certification, with generally more motivated and more mature students, these provide greater flexibility in content and approach, and development education is taking place explicitly in some. One interesting example was a course which included a visit to a developing country. The emphasis is less academic in these colleges, and possibilities for interdisciplinary, topic-oriented approaches are good.

1/ CIDA-supported decentralized resource and learning centres to stimulate Canadians' interest in other cultures - often computerized and using audio-visual methods.

Colleges of teacher education and education courses in universities present a special case. In terms of pre-service training of teachers, development education has a two-fold emphasis - the actual education of the future teachers, and their involvement in lesson preparation for the secondary and primary students whom they will teach. Because of this practical side of teacher-training, development education is more active, with students not simply studying the subject but communicating about it. There is a tendency to over-emphasize the curriculum aspects, at the expense of student-education, though it could be argued that the latter is best carried out through the former. Concerning the in-service training of teachers, Canada has a well-developed system for this. Development education tends to take place when individual course leaders are so inclined, or where community groups run workshops, seminars or conferences for teachers, and hence the outreach tends to be limited to those teachers who are already interested. No systematic attempt is made, at either the pre or in-service stage, to include development education as a regular part of training; it is rather mostly due to individual staff initiative and is predominantly in the social science areas.

In contrast to these formal possibilities, Canada is characterized by a large variety of non-formal, voluntary groups, both on and off campus, in which students and sometimes staff are involved. These vary from programmes of overseas visits and exchanges to research/action groups concerned with a particular geographical area, e.g. ex-Portuguese colonies, or the Caribbean, or topics, e.g. trade and aid, ecology and development. On the whole,these groups are city-specific, although some have nationwide links and also international ones, especially with the U.K. and the U.S.A. Enthusiasm and seriousness of purpose and concern characterize these groups, and one very useful function which they perform is to provide a bridge between formal study and informal activities. This is a two-way process, both enabling students to consider aspects of development, especially social change, trade and ecology, which are not provided in courses about the Third World, and stimulating students to undertake formal studies, especially through individual research at the graduate level, on topics in which they have become interested at the informal level. One interesting aspect of these informal groups is that a number of them have received funds from the Canadian Government through the Canadian International Development Agency's allocation for development education to non-governmental organizations (e.g. in 1973 $6 million was allocated for this purpose). They have thus been enabled to carry out projects, especially the collection, preparation and distribution of resoucce materials, which are normally beyond the scope of voluntary groups. This in turn reflects the climate in Canada which can be said to represent considerable interest in, and concern about, development and development education.

Another aspect of development education concerns students from developing countries. Canada has a large overseas students' programme. In some cases, special courses are provided exclusively for overseas students, which may occasionally include Canadians preparing for service abroad. Foreign students in such courses are usually civil servants, of some seniority in their jobs at home. Otherwise overseas students participate in normal courses,with some concentration in the professional and post-graduate ones. It could be argued that such a "third world presence" on campus is in itself an educational experience. However, the concern of various groups indicates that it is not automatic, and that situations need to be created for informal social and intellectual exchange. This is facilitated by the interests of Canadian students who have travelled, but on the other hand, overseas students may be under such pressure to succeed academically, or may be under threat of withdrawal of scholarships for outside activities, particularly political ones, that their potential contributions are reduced. However, they are being encouraged to take part in school projects and one agency at least has a major programme for this under way.

Special note should be taken of the situation in Quebec Province, and, to a lesser degree, in the more remote parts of other provinces, e.g. Northern Ontario. Perhaps a combination of two factors makes Quebec an exception - its basically French intellectual tradition which seems to show in a more intense and sophisticated level of political debate and readiness to conceptualize problems in political terms; and its position vis-à-vis the rest of the country. This perception of an oppressed and underprivileged minority group seems to have led to earlier and greater mobilization, to a more readily perceived continuity between local and Third World issues, and the impression is one of a more active involvement of the education system, including universities, both formally and informally, in development education processes. The same is true, to a lesser extent, in the more remote English-speaking areas, and there are signs, for example in Northern Ontario, of an approach to development education initiated from sections of educational institutions specifically based on the parallel between the rape of resources from the North by the South, and Third World/First World relationships.

In general, the situation in Canada is that many different forms of development education are being practised. However, at the tertiary level, most is being achieved through the interest and concern of individual staff members, and it is largely in a traditional research-oriented framework with the most active aspects related to options, post-graduate studies, or informal, mostly student-initiated, groups.

. UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

It is almost a cliché to say that the U.S.A. is so vast and varied that almost everything is happening - somewhere. This is, however, true for development education, although there is perhaps less variation in this field than one would expect.

So far as it is possible to generalize about universities/colleges, there is a wide spread of interest in developing countries and a huge number of courses include some aspect of developing countries. At the undergraduate level, this is mostly limited to single-discipline studies and the emphasis is on theoretical and problematic studies. Since the nature of the universities themselves varies, from the small, liberal-arts-cum-business schools to the huge "multivarsity", this has to be taken into account in considering the courses. Thus, a small college may have several staff members or even an overall philosophy, backed up by regular student exchanges, which gives the impression of active involvement in development issues in at least one country and for at least a significant number of students and staff. On the other hand, in the larger, more diversified institutions, there may be specialized schools, centres or programmes with a strong emphasis on development, which attract students in large numbers, but which, in terms of the size of the university as a whole, leave much greater numbers of students untouched. It may also be useful to distinguish between the "land grant" colleges and those established privately, since this may affect the money available for research or teaching or the research emphasis, e.g. land grant colleges may be favoured for U.S.A.I.D. contracts and research,while private colleges may have endowments for particular programmes or exchanges.

In the post-graduate field, specialized schools, centres and programmes become more important. Students are confronted by an almost bewildering variety of possibilities, with international and/or area study centres being particularly popular in the development field. Thus, in addition to traditional disciplines which may or may not have a development content or orientation, the centres provide an opportunity for, generally, multi-disciplinary studies in a particular geographical area. This, plus the system of higher degrees with a large coursework component, and the flexibility of accreditation of course units in areas other than the main field of specialization, enable students to sample different approaches and to gain a wider view of the topic than is the case in other, more narrow systems. Further, an undergraduate specialization in a field is often not required as a prerequisite for post-graduate courses, which again leads to greater flexibility and more options for students, as well as a greater "multiplier" effect in terms of numbers of students potentially "exposed" to development issues, especially when the large number who go on to graduate studies is taken into account. Finally, many institutions have regular exchange programmes with other countries, European as well as Third World, which enable students to gain credit for attendance at an overseas institution and in which the exchange is organized by the home institution. These exchanges may also take place at the undergraduate level, and may even be compulsory in some courses such as languages.

While unguided experience with little opportunity for orientation or debriefing and with limited exposure to local conditions (as when there is a branch of a U.S. university abroad, or even separate, "all-American" accommodation), is not an unqualified "good thing", and may in fact be superficial or misguided, the possibilities are also immense. American students, either formally or informally, are probably the greatest student travellers in the world, and thus the pool of direct experience which can be drawn on is immense.

Fieldwork is an additional source of such experience and may be a prerequisite for admission to some higher degree courses, or an essential part of the actual degree work. It is often linked to staff research, graduate students being included in "teams" especially where there is a large, extra-university contract involved. This also happens where there are twinning arrangements between American and overseas universities. Fieldwork can be more valuable than travel or simple exchanges, as language study and a longer period overseas is usually entailed, but the limitations of data-gathering and problem-solving, which tend to be of over-riding concern in dissertation-oriented fieldwork, may limit exposure to the country and its people and impose a predominantly Western framework on the experience.

University staff probably have more experience in developing countries than their colleagues in most parts of the world. This arises largely from the widespread practice of government contracting specialized jobs to universities. This leads to sustained experience in a particular geographical area and/or problem area, with long vacations and study leave being spent in such research. The orientation of the research tends to be practical and problem-solving, and the nature of the attachment of staff overseas includes secondment arrangements, mostly to government institutions in developing countries. In fact, the relationships between the individual research interests, the tasks which they undertake overseas, and their teaching commitments in their home institutions, are often unclear. Naturally, in many instances, they are attached to area study programmes/specialized departments/institutions so that the three tasks are at least superficially related. But because of factors such as inter-institutional and interpersonal rivalry in obtaining overseas contracts, the tightening of funds for teaching programmes, and even a reduction in the number of places that welcome such forms of aid and exchange, there are signs of decreasing opportunities for students to participate, as part of their course of study, in the overseas projects of the staff members, and to a lesser extent, rising unemployment is affecting the willingness to engage in such activities.

The inability to obtain funds for overseas projects is linked to a changing climate of opinion within the U.S. regarding involvement overseas. Disillusionment is probably a key factor, from a reaction against the apparent ingratitude of other countries for U.S. aid, to questioning of the concept of aid, especially when it is closely tied to political aims, and a growing concern about conditions at home. While the relationships between these factors are not often stated explicitly, it is likely that the post-Vietnam era will be marked increasingly by a changing perception of the role of the U.S. in international affairs, which will affect both the orientation of much of the current teaching and research in the field in terms of topics and ability to undertake research, and also the perceived relationships between "domestic" and "overseas" issues, at a deeper and perhaps more long-term level. At present, however, the increased interest in domestic issues is mostly concentrated on these issues per se, and it is not an automatic process to interrelate the two. The effect of all this on university staff and their teaching programmes is perhaps summed up by the words of one veteran contract worker with experience over a long period in three different developing countries:

> "I suppose some of it does rub off on the students as I do tend to take examples from my experience overseas. But I don't specifically run courses related to my overseas work."

A further note should be made of the organizational situation in the U.S. which, if it exists at all elsewhere, is much smaller in extent. This is the existence of a variety of inter-institutional links. These exist between U.S. institutions and ones in almost every part of the world, including western Europe. In some cases, the link is between departments or faculties, in others the institutions as a whole participate, and in several instances, a group of U.S. institutes have formed a consortium which then establishes links with a number of overseas institutions. Such links are established for exchange of personnel, both staff and students, and often have an aid purpose in that the staff of the U.S. institution undertake specific projects for the counterpart institute or government. The effects of the links vary. At a minimum, an opportunity for inter-personal learning is created, the results of which will depend on the motivation and nature of participation of the individuals, and the extent to which deliberate steps are undertaken to facilitate it, such as initial orientation, accommodation and flexibility of arrangements to adjust to individual needs.

Beyond that, it depends on the nature of formal courses undertaken and individual expectations regarding these, and the opportunity to adapt learning on return home, so that it does not merely become an isolated experience with little relevance to the individual and his society. For staff members, especially those from developing countries, there may be a chance to undertake reading and reflection and perhaps textbook writing which home pressures would not normally allow. If, however, it is merely a year off in which individual careers may be furthered, the effectiveness as regards development education is minimal. The same comment applies if, for example, staff from developing countries are merely required to give formal classes with little chance for contact outside a formal bureaucratic structure. This bureaucratic factor may also be inhibiting if they have come from a rigid structure into a more informal one without some preparation, and on the other hand, may create problems and misunderstandings for staff moving from a less to a more structured situation. Effectiveness will also be decreased for staff if there is not some possibility of change in courses and establishment of new ones as a result of their overseas experience.

Finally, there is a tendency for such links to be perceived from the U.S. end as principally aid, in which they go to tell or teach, rather than to learn as well, and can be classified as an exercise in americanization or educational imperialism both for foreign participants in the U.S. and U.S. participants overseas, in which case the development education aspects are negligible. This does not downgrade the really good efforts which have been made by individuals and institutions, through such links, but a cost-benefit analysis in terms of development education would probably reveal that in terms of increased knowledge about, understanding of and attitudes to other countries, there is little change as a result of such elaborate and costly schemes, nor has self-directed development in developing countries been significantly or demonstrably enhanced.

Teaching varies in the universities and colleges, with the emphasis being on lectures and seminars, and use of programmed and self-paced learning systems is probably more widespread than anywhere else. If development education includes a relationship between the learners, then this is the antithesis.

Teacher-training once again varies enormously. Length of training and combination of specific education subjects with others ensures a fairly broad background for potential teachers. Development education however is almost entirely left to the initiative of individuals running particular courses, and the generally heavy American emphasis in school syllabuses tends to lead to a strong proclivity to view other countries through American eyes, if at all. There is no lack of study of other countries for the future teachers, but the aforementioned orientation tends to "neutralize" the value of this as development education.

On the other hand, the fact that American society itself is characterized by ethnic diversity and that children of minority groups are present in the schools, is being increasingly acknowledged in pre-service training. While this may be, to some extent, within the framework of remedial teaching, teaching English as a second language, or "problem children", with a view to using the education system to americanize these children rather than [illegible]adapt it to this cultural diversity, this is not uniformly so. The system of school bo[illegible] and the governance of schools by community groups (even if these represent only sectional interests) means that there is a focus on the community in the schools and potential teachers have to learn this and relate to it. Further, through practical teaching, students are enabled to gain first-hand experience with diverse communities and in some instances up to twelve months may be spent actually living in a community and working with adults as well as the school children.

In-service training again reflects variety and takes many forms, from summer trips overseas to full post-graduate courses, summer schools and shorter seminars and workshops. The impression is gained that in this area in particular the market-place approach is rampant. Not only are educational authorities, including universities and teachers' associations, involved, but also a wide range of public interest groups, voluntary organizations and foundations, some with predominantly commercial interests. Teachers' workshops may in fact be seen as the opportunity for selling books and curriculum units, which abound, and the full range of viewpoints may be found in these units. "Global perspectives" is to some extent enjoying a heyday, with competing groups trying to gain acceptance for their particular unit (usually accompanied by teachers' notes and/ or audiovisual aids). With some exceptions, this scene is not noted by its continuity and there is mostly a lack of follow-up, as well as for opportunities for practising teachers to test and adapt the units, feeding back to those involved in their development. The classroom teacher must be almost in the situation of doctors with the drug companies, receiving a barrage of literature presented in a very competitive market manner.

The number of student and community organizations is legion. Students are perhaps most heavily involved in area lobbies, concern or study groups, and specific issues such as multinational corporations. Action varies enormously from campus to campus, and in many instances groups are campus, city or state specific, although there are some national associations. The relationship with formal studies is usually tenuous, although the content of courses or their deficiencies may bear a more direct relationship to the formation of informal groups. Resource centres, bookshops and publishing associations play an important role in stimulating research and communication of the results. Alternative news services provide material not readily available through usual commercial channels, although the extent of their outreach beyond the already-converted is generally limited. This is part of the general problem in the U.S. of the barrage of materials, goods, groups and the near-impossibility, because of size, diversity and geographical spread, of keeping track of even a narrow field. This is exacerbated by the strong competitiveness of almost every venture, including associations and organizations producing curriculum units, mostly at the secondary level but some also intended for college use.

The student can find a group to suit his or her interests, in any aspect of development, including ecology, the environment, population, war and peace and national minority groups. It is impossible to guage the extent of student involvement but there is no reason to suspect that it is significantly different to any other country, that is, probably 10-15% at most with active involvement and commitment, and the diversity tends to dilute the effects of any one activity or group or lobby.

There are very large numbers of overseas students at every level and under a wide range of auspices. They may be participating in special courses established solely for overseas students, in specialized courses or in general programmes within the mainstream of the university. Because of the diversity in U.S. education, the overseas student probably has a wider range of choice for study there than elsewhere in the world. In addition, because of their numbers, advisory services and special arrangements are quite highly developed on many campuses and in addition, courses and even institutes exist, such as the East-West Center in Hawaii, where inter-cultural experience is an explicit aim. These have participants, both overseas and local, who will attest to the value of such experiences, which have a real potential for development education although this is not always realized. Set against this, however, is evidence that overseas study is useful to a developing country only under certain limited conditions. It is thus difficult to weigh up the value for development education of both local and foreign students of overseas study, against its value in a wider context of development. Certainly, at the informal level, the contact between different students may increase inter-individual understanding.

However, in this area, as in almost every other concerning development education in the U.S., the outsider finds it difficult to escape the impression that underlying it all there is both a wide ignorance and lack of understanding of other people and places by Americans, and a tendency more pronounced than elsewhere to experience and interpret other cultures through almost-impervious American eyes.

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

The situation in the Federal Republic of Germany has few special features. As with North America, courses are offered to students with a developing country content, especially in the fields of economics, politics, sociology and agriculture. Such courses can be divided into three, in terms of the way in which the subject-matter is handled: the traditional, which is heavily theoretical/philosophical in orientation; the practical, which also has a strong theoretical base but which is associated with programmes designed to prepare students for actual work in developing countries, and a third category which is evident in three or four universities in particular, and which, though theoretical, is especially oriented to a basically marxist analysis of the subject rather than to a more comparative approach.

Two factors which affect the whole undergraduate situation in the Federal Republic of Germany are the rigidity of the whole educational system there, with its strong emphasis on theory and on mastery of fairly narrowly defined disciplines, and the fairly long period of time required to complete a first degree. Although changes are being introduced following the Hochschule Reformgesetz of 1972, the picture is still one of a highly academic approach within one or two disciplines. On the other hand, the long periods which most students take to gain the first degree gives the students a longer time for combining the relative irresponsibility of study with some work and other experience. A high proportion seem to work at least part-time, and the mobility both within the country at different institutions, and between countries, mostly for non-academic reasons, is relatively high. These factors, which are to some extent characteristic of all Western European university students, give the outsider an impression that, regardless of the precise nature of the degree which they are undertaking, students are more "studious" in their approach to outside interests.

Thus, informal student activities tend to be marked by analysis and theory in what appears to be an attempt to link their studies to other more socio-political issues. At times, this means that informal "activities" do not reach the stage of action, but a potentially more thoroughly-researched and thought-out base is provided for action. This in turn may mean that it is more difficult for students to interact with the community at large because of the theoretical bias, but there is no strong evidence for this. The fact that universities in Europe are not on the whole geographically isolated - as are the campuses elsewhere - means that socially students are more part of the community. This provides a measure of counter-balance. Relatively small distances between cities and towns, and the ability to spend at least part of the time in another institution, ensures a greater degree of contact between students at both the formal and informal levels.

At the end of the first degree, students are not only older than their North American, British and Australasian counterparts, but have more experience, including work experience. These factors in turn not only help to put some "flesh" on the theoretical bones of their formal courses of study, but are partly responsible for the role of European students in attempts to change university structures.

Thus, German students do have the opportunity to study developing countries and related questions. However, in general they will have done so in one discipline - and even then in only some institutions and in some disciplines - with a heavily theoretical emphasis. It is only at the end of the time of study that extra-curricular experience and more practical work will have enabled some at least to gain a broader outlook. There are at present no signs of a different approach to formal study.

Post-graduate students technically have more freedom to undertake research which exhibits their own interests and approaches. This is inhibited by the over-riding importance of the dissertation, which has to be orally defended as well as examined, and by the strict hierarchy in which the aspiring academic virtually needs a "patron" to provide employment in which tenure is very hard to obtain, and in which, like most bureaucracies, privilege and power are closely inter-related so that "deviants" have little opportunity but to opt out of the system.

However, there are a number of specialized institutions for post-graduate study and research which are strongly oriented towards developing countries and which include a variety of disciplines and team approaches to work. These institutes tend to be specialized round a particular set of disciplines, e.g. politics, policy and economics at the University of Bochum, agriculture and agricultural economics at the Technical University of Berlin. In some instances, practical social problem-solving is the main aim of the institute, and research is geared towards developing countries and often linked to official government aid programmes, with appropriate finance, contact with developing countries and field experience. Thus, the potential exists for active participation in development work, depending on the institute, its finances and the area of study. But this does not mean that large numbers of students are engaged in consideration of development issues, and for those who are, the teaching methods are most likely to be theoretical, didactic and reduce to a minimum the active participation of the student.

Academic staff are also engaged in research into development questions. As has been previously mentioned, some of this is related to government aid effort and there is a sprinkling of individuals with extensive experience in development, which has been derived from fieldwork in a variety of ways. Because the universities are less teaching-oriented than the American and British ones, they are likely to affect far fewer students as a result of their experience, and contact is more through supervision of individual research work than through classes, especially after the first couple of years of study. There is also a greater number who work in affiliated institutes which do not undertake teaching.

A great variety of such research institutes exist, within and beyond the university structure. In the latter instance, sponsorship includes political foundations, the church and government and in some cases, private enterprise, and the research undertaken is obviously closely connected with the particular interests and priorities of the sponsors. Included are Peace Research Institutes, which engage in more basic questions and which most closely approximate to interdisciplinary studies which are concerned not only with developing countries but with international relations and the effects of the developed on the developing nations. Others are concerned with education, for example the Unesco Institute at Hamburg, which provides a specialized place of study for students from developing countries as well as for international research into education, especially in the developing countries. The Institut für Pädagogische Forschung in Frankfurt is concerned with more general educational questions including comparative curriculum studies of European educational systems, and broadly touches on development education. Special mention should also be made of the newer institutions - the Free University in Berlin and the University of Kiel - which appear to be more flexible than the older universities and which are seen as centres for radical social scientists, including those with an interest in development.

Student extra-curricular activities flourish, and as has already been noted, it is here that students have the greatest opportunity to participate in activities, including study and research, regarding socially relevant questions. A relative sophistication is obvious in these activities in the political sphere and while German students on the whole are probably not much more politically involved than their counterparts elsewhere, examples may be cited of effective student political action, both concerning internal university matters and domestic politics as well as in the field of official foreign policy. The environment, aid, foreign students, peace issues, are well represented in extra-curricular associations, and it is probably in the Federal Republic of Germany that the effects of the French student movement have triggered most action. A superficial parallel can perhaps be drawn between this, and the effect of the Vietnam war on the American campus scene, and its repercussions amongst students in the developed English-speaking countries.

Other tertiary institutions are mainly diploma-granting technological institutes. In some of these, technology and the developing countries may be studied and/or research is being undertaken in these fields. It is perhaps not surprising that in a country which is so geared to heavy industry and which has achieved its economic strength largely through technological advance, the question of intermediate technology is given scant attention. It is also an interesting corollary that large numbers of overseas students may be found especially in the technical training institutions, and that there is a growing movement among them, assisted by some of their German fellow-students, to seriously question the value of their German training in highly specialized technology for the situation to which they will return.

Development education seems to be almost totally ignored in teacher-training at all levels. A clearer view of this and some suggested reasons may be found in the IRFED Report. 1/ The nexus between the nature of teacher-training in the Federal Republic of Germany, the fact that school curricula are the responsibility of the Länder and that so far reform of the school system has concentrated on the system rather than the syllabus, as well as the heavy emphasis on the academic rather than the practical aspects of teaching, seems to be both a cause and an effect of the general lack of interest in development education at both school and teacher-training levels. A factor which should be taken into account is the existence of licencing examinations, conducted by the Länder authorities for the professions, over and above the academic ones, which could facilitate more freedom in the institutions, especially in teacher-training, but which seems to have had the reverse effect.

Voluntary agencies in the community at large do play a role, insofar as students are members of them. For example, church groups, Brot für die Welt and youth sections of political parties all have students in their memberships. They have a further role, through their contribution towards making a climate of opinion in which change at the university level can become not only desirable but possible; their existence and characteristics affect development education inside as well as beyond the university.

There are large numbers of overseas students at all educational levels in the Federal Republic of Germany, both officially and privately financed. Most commonly they undertake normal courses and in addition to environmental adjustment, have to overcome language problems. The Goethe-Institut network, which is privately funded within the Federal Republic and assisted by government overseas, has courses which are geared to the needs of students and most institutions provide some language training facilities once students have commenced their main studies. The impression is gained that there is a greater amount of interaction between overseas and local students than in the English-speaking countries in particular, and that both the presence of these students and their needs has been significantly responsible for the interest among German students in developing countries. They participate visibly in extra-curricular groups, which include teach-ins on particular countries and areas as well as pressure group activities.

A number of special groups exist with a primary interest in overseas students. Their activities range from concern about questions of personal welfare to the politics of overseas study as part of aid policy and the need for adaptation of courses so that overseas training becomes relevant to the needs of the societies from which the students come. The World University Service (Weltstudentendienst) has been the most concerned organization, and their activities included lobbying the government to stop the UNITAR international research project on overseas students, because of the political overtones of the study. 2/

1/ FAO/AD-UNESCO. In-School Development Education in the Industrialized Countries. Report on a Six-Country Comparative Study carried out by IRFED. Rome, FAO/AD, 1974.

2/ It was considered that the UNITAR study was designed to find reasons for decreasing the activities of overseas students as well as lowering their numbers, from some countries in particular.

The large numbers of overseas students and their future is of some concern even to government, especially since it has been estimated that there are more overseas graduates of German universities still working in Germany or other industrialized countries than there are German aid experts working in developing countries. It can be said, however, that the presence of overseas students has contributed markedly to the development education of German students, and in some cases to related research within university programmes as well as those of related institutes, for example, studies made by the Sociology Department at the University of Cologne into the training of overseas students.[1]

FRANCE

The visitor to France cannot help noticing that Third World issues appear to be placed prominently before the public. This is reflected to some extent in the universities.

There is a Third World aspect of many fields of study but especially politics, economics and agriculture. The reorganization of the university system following the student crisis of 1968 has not effectively decreased centralism but has enabled greater diversification to take place within that system, for example the reorganization of the universities in Paris, each with particular emphases regarding faculties. The organization of degree work into three cycles assists students to break down studies into stages and more clearly defined units and levels, and development studies may be pursued through to the thesis stage. While there is some innovation in approach to subject-matter, it is not great, and interdisciplinary studies are possible, although as one person pointed out, this is more the grouping together of disciplines rather than a truly inter-disciplinary approach. In at least some instances, there is a theoretical acknowledgement of the continuity of development between developed and developing countries, which possibly owes its origins to the French approach to the relationship between her colonies and metropolitan France. Some of the newer concerns, especially ecology and environmental issues, are also studied in a developed/developing country and inter-disciplinary context.

These tendencies are also evident at the post-graduate level. Some of the work is done in specialized institutes attached to the universities. Fieldwork is possible but probably a large percentage of the research is theoretical-library oriented. The impression is gained that to a certain extent "radical scholarship" is encouraged or at least tolerated to a much greater degree than in, for example, the Federal Republic of Germany, and that such radical scholars are found particularly in areas at least related to development studies, that the orientation is more soundly theoretical than, for example, their North American counterparts, although there is some attempt to combine theory and practice, and that it is through the social sciences rather than, although not exclusively outside, area studies, that it is most frequently carried out. Research library facilities are good, especially in the institutes attached to the universities; on the other hand, funds for field work, provided almost exclusively by the government, are becoming more scarce.

Largely due to the relationship between France and her colonies, there is also a relatively large number of university staff with experience in developing countries. Their orientations vary, which is naturally reflected in their teaching and non-government research, especially where a longer term contract relationship has existed in which a staff member has worked for government overseas. Such work has included institution-building in the education systems of the former colonies and has probably been strengthened by the perceived importance of establishing French language institutions overseas as an arm of foreign policy. Experience and relationships have been largely in Francophone countries.

1/ See "Grundsatzüberlegungen und Vorschläge zur Reintegration des in der B.R.D. aus- und fortgebildeten akademischen Nachwuchses aus Entwicklungsländern", WUS, Deutsches Komittee, 1972.

A more varied pattern is seen in the university-affiliated institutes. In some instances, teaching and research is combined and includes fieldwork. Developing countries may form a focus, although local issues within France, including the problems of immigrants, are included more and more. Funds are provided by government and national and international agencies. It is perhaps here that the role of research leaders of world renown and including ones of radical orientations in terms of socio-political and economic framework, is most apparent in attracting students and co-workers and establishing development studies of a more radical nature on a sounder basis than in most other places. 1/

Teacher-training is probably more noted for some innovation in approach to teaching than in subject-matter. It is more theoretical than practical in approach, and the central licencing of teachers coupled with the still extremely centralized and unified syllabus in the schools leaves little room for diversity. One can only assume that student teachers, along with other French students, are also interested in development issues and in studying them with their formal courses but that they have few opportunities to put this into practice in the classroom. At the in-service level, there is also a tendency to concentrate on methods rather than content, although the new system of electives in the high school syllabus introduces new opportunities for a variety of topics and development, population and environment have proved popular with school pupils. It can therefore be assumed that this has to some extent affected the choices in in-service programmes for teachers.

Non-formal campus groups offer a wide range of opportunities to pursue interests in development. Groups exist which are concerned with socio-economic and political analysis, with particular countries and issues, and many show a concern for action at the local and national level. Links with outside bodies such as workers' movements are probably more highly developed than elsewhere and while no statistics are available, the impression is given that a relatively high proportion of French people in higher education are politicized and participating in activities,many of which are specifically development oriented. In some cases, this is connected with courses of study, and as elsewhere, social science and humanities students are over-represented; what is perhaps most noticeable in the French situation is a research/action approach and in some cases at least, working cooperation with community groups. However, this is most obviously so in Paris, and the heavy concentration of activities in this city leads to some difficulty in gaining an overall picture of the country.

There are large numbers of overseas students and some faculty members in France. As in the Federal Republic of Germany, they provide a stimulus for activities which are in turn related to the particular area foci of both formal and informal activities - Francophone Africa, Latin America and to a lesser extent, Indo-China and the Middle East. France also took part in the UNITAR study previously mentioned, but there seems to be less concern about overseas students staying on in France after completion of their study (some are in fact refugees anyway) and about the relevance of their courses. This may be related to the numbers studying agriculture and other subjects, in places which have a relatively long history of training students from the French colonies, and may also be related to the French philosophy of education which places only minor importance on vocational preparation except in technical fields. Overseas students are by no means confined to special institutes although in addition to these, special arrangements may be made for them in normal courses. The impression is that overseas students form a visible part of the French tertiary educational system, which has made certain adaptations over a relatively long period as a result, and that their presence contributes to interest in development and to the particular directions which this interest takes, especially but not exclusively, in informal, extra-curricular activities.

1/ For example, the role of the "Institut National Agronomique", with staff like Prof. René Dumont, has been considerable in going beyond purely agricultural and Third World issues to questions of development itself, on an international scale.

THE NETHERLANDS

The Netherlands is an interesting example of parallel development in approach to development issues. Both the government in its official policies, and voluntary groups, are in many ways to the forefront in these matters. On the other hand, development studies have a long history in many universities, but due largely to slowness of educational change, the leadership in thought is not so apparent here as in the two former fields, with notable exceptions.

In almost all tertiary institutions, some form of development studies may be undertaken, and have in fact existed in many places for a considerable period. For students wishing to undertake such studies, they tend to be firmly within the disciplines of economics, politics, history and international relations, at least at the first degree level, and to be offered as options or sections of general courses in the discipline rather than as specialized studies. As most degrees consist of studies in one area/discipline alone, students do not have the opportunity to examine development issues in an inter-disciplinary setting. However, as a recent survey of international studies has shown, 1/ a wide range of offerings is available, and includes the more traditional international relations and peace research, area studies, studies of integration processes, and studies of development in a national and international setting. In addition, the length of time that many students take to obtain their first degrees, means that work experience in a variety of situations, more flexibility for participation in extra-curricular activities, and "auditing" of courses not necessarily for credit towards a degree, are possible and both enhance the opportunities for development education and for some integration of study and experience.

There are a wide range of approaches to development studies, varying in subject matter and method of learning. At one end there is the Third World Centre at the University of Nijmegen,which is a model research/action programme, both inter-disciplinary and linking local, national and international issues; at the other end there are economic and research oriented studies with a heavy theoretical bias at the Development Institute, University of Tilburg. Change in university studies generally has been slow in the Netherlands; a restructuring of first degree courses to lower the minimum time for completion from five to four years has just been introduced. It is viewed by some academics as a retrograde step which will inevitably lower standards. While it is too early to see whether this affects the flexibility of courses, there is at least a possibility that it will decrease the number of options available to students, especially in places where hardline academics insist on a certain basic course content so that options rather than theory will be reduced under the new degree structure.

Development studies are possible at the post-graduate level and more opportunities are provided than at the undergraduate level because of the specialized centres and institutes that only take in students at the post-graduate level. Studies are undertaken through seminars and individual and team research, including the possibility of fieldwork, the character of the work in development education depending on the supervisor and the amount of freedom granted to the student. This is generally not great. In some instances, interdisciplinary studies are possible and the individual has a range of choice of institution for pursuing further study.

Again, staff activities vary. The Dutch government is the main funding agency, and contract work, especially in relation to aid projects, is undertaken. Where staff undertake such work, the effect on students depends on whether or not the staff belong to a teaching institution, and the level at which the teaching is undertaken. It cannot be assumed that because there is a pool of staff with experience in developing countries, that large numbers of their students will be undertaking related studies. In some cases students may be included in team research, either as post-graduates working in the area or as

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1/ Everts, P.P. A Survey of International Studies in the Netherlands, Leiden, 1974.

assistants, but on the whole the impression is left that most staff, regardless of their area of specialization, see their research as their main activity and teaching as a bothersome chore, which tends to be the situation everywhere.

Institutions such as the free university in Amsterdam provide some fresh approaches, but it is too soon yet to evaluate either their contribution to development education or to educational change as a whole. There is some danger that such alternatives will syphon off those students and staff who are more innovative and decrease pressure for change elsewhere.

A variety of informal groups exist in the Netherlands, within and without the university. Efforts tend to be localized, a decision having been taken several years ago for student bodies to operate in this way. This has assisted greater involvement in local issues, linking them to international ones. Good models of a research/action approach may be seen, with attention being given to the study of issues which are then translated into action. Such action has involved the public in several effective commodity campaigns (e.g. coffee from Angola, beet versus cane sugar). Third World Centres, with the aim of providing a resource centre for student and community groups in the area, have been established for several years and provide in addition a meeting place for various groups. The informal scene in the Netherlands is lively, with a variety of groups and movements covering a number of issues and involving students in community activities, including union contacts. The impression is of effective development education and a quite high level of politicization, and the existence of the Third World Centre at the University of Nijmegen, even though its continued existence is not guaranteed, is an example of the way in which an approach which is usually associated with non-formal activities can be successfully injected into a formal institution.

Insufficient information was available on teacher-training, but there is no reason to believe that the situation varies markedly from elsewhere in Europe. The government is providing some material and stimulus for inclusion of Third World issues and environmental studies in the secondary syllabus, which presumably has some bearing on teacher training.

There are numbers of overseas students in the Netherlands. Like Scandinavia, the fact that the national language is only spoken by a relatively small number of people, means that there are fewer foreign students than in countries with a more widely spoken language. However, the former and present colonies still provide a source of Dutch-speaking students, and at the post-graduate level it is possible to pursue studies in English and to a lesser extent in French and German.

A special institution, NUFFIC [1], has as an aim the arrangement and coordination of overseas student programmes, including one at the Hague for post-graduate students, which is particularly oriented to questions of developing countries. Former colonial officers provide throughout the higher education system a pool of people, often with extended experience in developing countries. The Netherlands, especially the University of Leiden, is also a well-established centre for research into Dutch colonial administration and more recent development problems, especially for the former Netherlands East Indies, which has a high international standing and attracts scholars from all over the world.

Thus, given its size and the language, there are quite large numbers of overseas students, both in normal and special courses, and a fair amount of participation in extra-curricular activities is evident. While formal courses tend to be conservative in approach, this is not necessarily so, and contrasts quite considerably with informal activities. It can be argued that the encouragement and opportunities for participation in outside courses, and the generally higher level of interest in development issues, provide some counter-balance to formal work as well as an added stimulus for local students.

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[1] NUFFIC: Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Co-Operation, a private independent institution founded in 1952 to promote international co-operation in the field of higher education and research.

SCANDINAVIA

Although most time was spent in Sweden, with a short period in Denmark, some generalizations are valid for Scandinavia (= Denmark, Norway and Sweden for the purpose of this survey), since at the research level in particular there is active cooperation and coordination between the three countries in certain fields. Further, they share the fact of each having a small population speaking the national language, and none of them has been a colonial power in the tropics.

Education has been systematically changed in Sweden at every level in the past 5-6 years. One feature of this has been the implementation of a prime ministerial decree that internationalization should play a significant part in that change. Internationalization is interpreted in two ways: firstly, ensuring that wherever possible an international perspective is included in the curricula, and secondly, in the certification aspects of education, to maximize recognition of Swedish qualifications overseas, in order to promote individual mobility. Internationalization has been extended to the university level and the Vice-Chancellor of Swedish Universities Report of the Commission on Internationalization was published late in 1974. 1/ However, change in the curriculum has lagged at the university level, although not in other aspects of the university. Thus, whereas quotas continue to be imposed in German universities, and pressure for student places is high, numbers of university students are dropping in Sweden in recent years, even though admission policies have changed, with special courses available to those without matriculation but with work experience, and admission to degree courses subject to an ability test.

In terms of first degree offerings, a range of possibilities exists in all three countries. As elsewhere, these are based on traditional disciplines, the development education aspect consisting mainly of development economics, international relations and some developing country case studies. As with other countries in Europe, methods of study tend to be traditional and theoretical, but the design of course structures enables students some time to develop and participate in related extra-curricular activities.

More opportunities exist at the post-graduate level, where specialization is possible and where departments and institutes exist with a Third World emphasis. Development studies, area studies and environmental studies may be pursued in such institutes, in an interdisciplinary setting in some instances. Research teams are active in this area; and work of both a theoretical and a problem-solving nature may be undertaken, though as with all higher degree work, the need to prepare a dissertation and to defend it tends to decrease possibilities for a research/action approach. Thesis work is coupled with seminars, the nature of which depends on the participants, both staff and students, for direction and content. One aspect of development studies which is more apparent in Scandinavia than elsewhere is peace research which bridges some of the disciplinary gaps and is probably the area of development studies in which developed-developing country relations are most clearly the subject-matter.

Staff are engaged in many fields of development research. A considerable amount of this is stimulated by money from the government aid agencies, and examples of such contract work include research to assist the implementation of aid programmes, work with teachers and teacher-trainers for the implementation of internationalized school curricula, and investigation into public opinion regarding the developing countries and aid policies. The latter is related to the fact that the aid policies of the Scandinavian countries have been both innovative and radical in the sense that they have supported liberation movements and other projects which are not normally government-assisted, and governments have been concerned that these policies may be in fact too far ahead of public opinion. Related to this is the absence of a colonial past, which means that on the one hand governments have been able to select countries, areas and types of aid in a more free situation, but that, on

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1/ Internationalizing the Universities, Office of the Chancellor of the Swedish Universities, Stockholm, 1974.

the other, the absence of historical ties means that the population as a whole has had little contact with or orientation towards developing countries. This in turn means that to some extent there is a self-consciousness in approach to developing countries with the contact being mainly in the developing countries, not in Scandinavia, which affects attitudes as well as the characteristics of technical assistance, including university staff participation in this.

However, there are staff with extended experience in the field, and research which is field-oriented, as well as of a more policy nature, and it could be argued that the foregoing is a positive advantage in that a different approach to developed-developing country relations is enhanced in theory as well as in practice, even given the danger of this becoming a more "us-them" relationship. The experience of staff is put to use in courses, especially for post-graduate students, and they are also working in institutes with few teaching commitments. It is perhaps in the relationship between staff and government through contract work that their experience and expertise is given most scope. As far as actual university teaching is concerned, there is some group work but on the whole traditional classes and seminars are the norm.

Some institutes may be found in Scandinavia which are semi-autonomous, in which inter-disciplinary and international approaches form a basic rationale of their programme. In some cases they are funded by the government, in part or whole, and in other cases, such as the Scandinavian Institute for African Studies, at Uppsala, the funding is by the three Scandinavian governments and staff and students come from the three countries. Some foundations also play a role, the Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation being the most notable. These institutes play an important role in development studies because they fund research and publications, and are also far more outgoing than purely academic institutions in providing public education through workshops, conferences, seminars and so on. A related institute is the International Peace Research Institute in Oslo, which co-operates with individuals and institutes throughout the world as well as actively engaging in research and education.

There are indications that teacher-training is undergoing change. Examples may be given from Denmark of teacher-training institutions which are essentially innovative in both the methods which they employ as well as the changes which they would like to see in the schools. In Sweden, the aforementioned reorganization of the whole education system has involved teacher trainers, and teaching methods, as well as subject-matter. This change has covered the whole range of ages and subjects. Recognizing the difficulties of introducing widescale changes in an education system, the National Board of Education has concentrated its efforts on the teacher-trainers where an enhanced multiplier effect can be expected from re-training, although the experienced classroom teacher is also catered for in in-service programmes. Since internationalization is an aspect of educational change in Sweden, special efforts are being made in this field. One such is the provision of new textbooks, and to assist this, the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA) has an annual seminar in developing countries for teacher-trainers, teachers and educational technologists. Apart from the individual learning promoted through these seminars, especially the opportunity for first-hand experience, participants then apply this to textbook writing, preparation of audiovisual materials and curriculum units.

Adult and community education should be mentioned in the development education context in Scandinavia. Developing countries and related issues may be found among the available courses. Further, in slightly different forms, folk high schools have been in existence in the three countries for some time. These provide non-formal learning situations for drop-outs from the ordinary schools as well as for early school leavers, and in the educational approaches as well as the range of subjects provide an interesting model for integrated community education.

Scandinavian students are active in extra-curricular programmes inside and outside the student milieu. Many of these are political in nature, and provide an opportunity for consideration of issues beyond formal courses as well as for action, usually of a political pressure group nature. A wide range of causes are espoused by such groups and include fundraising activities for development projects. International Forum in Denmark is one example: with World University Service, they have focussed on Africa in the last couple of years and have combined fundraising, obtaining funds from government and other aid bodies, for projects such as a hospital to train medical workers in the liberated area of Angola, with public education about Africa in the community at large. A level of professionalism not often found in informal groups is evident here, especially in their negotiations with government. Scandinavian students have also played a strong role in various international student groups - WUS, ISC (now IUEF), ISMUN being examples - and have brought what could be termed a distinctively Scandinavian approach, especially in development and peace/conflict matters, to these organizations.

There are relatively few overseas students in Scandinavia, partly because of the need to learn the relevant language first, and partly because of government policies which emphasize assistance for institutions in developing countries or third country programmes rather than developed country training. Some specialized courses do exist for overseas students, but on the whole, they have not had much impact on the Scandinavian education scene, formally or informally. While Scandinavia is not isolationist in approach to world affairs, it is certainly geographically and physically isolated - except through visits by Scandinavians - from developing countries.

UNITED KINGDOM

The long colonial history of the United Kingdom is reflected in the whole field of development studies there, as well as in public opinion concerning development issues. Institutions have existed for the training of colonial officers, for some students from the colonies and for those few "eccentric" people who have become interested in tropical and "exotic" places, and the present situation is a logical development from this.

Thus, Oriental and African languages, non-Western history, social anthropology, tropical medicine and agriculture, comparative economics and politics have been available to many student generations as fields of study. The tendency is for such studies to be undertaken in a highly academic fashion, which has however included fieldwork, an approach which has a distinctively British flavour with roots in 18th and 19th century British philosophy. These subjects have been accepted as "proper" if somewhat eccentric fields, pursued in an academic framework.

Undergraduates may, therefore, choose courses which are overtly set in the Third World or which contain sections dealing with it. In recent years, there has been a change in these courses with the establishment of specific development studies courses, most notably at the new universities of Sussex and East Anglia. The latter has just commenced a full undergraduate degree programme in Development Studies, in addition to offering options for students with other major fields of interest. Students in the U.K. certainly have the opportunity to study development and developing countries from a number of different viewpoints, depending on the place where they choose to study. Some of the U.K. universities, while strongly based in traditional academic values, have also introduced some innovations in teaching methods, as well as content, especially in the newer, so-called "red-brick" universities, and in addition, higher education has become more diversified and it is often in the Polytechnics and Colleges of Education that most innovation has occurred. While innovation in itself does not signify change which will promote development education, it can provide a facilitating environment in which this may take place. This, coupled with the traditional emphasis on the small tutorial group as an important teaching technique, and an interest, especially in the mid to late 1960s, in staff-student relationships, has encouraged a developmental approach in teaching in some instances.

Even greater diversity exists at the post-graduate level. As elsewhere some options in the development field, including interdisciplinary studies are available for the first time at this level, as are some specialized courses/institutes. Student work tends to be individualized around the dissertation topic, although seminar attendance is usually required and some coursework Master's Degree programmes are also available. Fieldwork is often required for research, and preparation is provided for it, including language training, in some instances.

A wide range of experience in development activities is represented amongst university staff. This includes work for government and other agencies in the development field, and in colonial administration, and no doubt is an important contributing factor to the extent to which developing countries and development studies may be studied in tertiary institutions. Naturally, staff vary in their approach to the material and work. However, British empiricism as a philosophy has also affected many fields of study, by placing an emphasis on theory testing and first-hand data collection. Coupled with the academic tradition in the U.K. in terms of dual teaching and research appointments, with the "sabbatical" year system (usually one in seven) for pursuing individual research, a foundation has been laid for staff to attempt to integrate research and teaching activities. On the other hand, this research is probably more often for personal interest alone, since there is less movement of personnel between government and academia than in many other countries, and research funds, even when they are provided by government, are administered most frequently through the institution rather than through individual or team contracts.

The experience of staff includes actual work in universities overseas, as "normal" staff members. This is clearly linked to the fact of the existence of the British Commonwealth and the special education assistance schemes which operate within it, as well as to the fact that most universities in former British colonies began as colleges of British universities and still draw heavily on the U.K. for staff. It also means that staff may be drawn from Commonwealth countries and, since the areas of the world from which they may be drawn is so diverse, this provides British students with possible exposure to a relatively high proportion of staff from different socio-cultural backgrounds, although within a basically similar academic tradition.

Special mention should be made of innovations in education which affect at least some institutions of higher education. One is the establishment of the Open University, where courses are undertaken by correspondence supplemented by some FM radio and television programmes. Established to enable people unable to attend a normal university to obtain a degree, the Open University not only calls on a wide range of selected individuals to run the courses and attracts a more diversified student population, but has also proved innovative in subject matter and teaching methods. While at present there are not many options available from the university of a strictly development studies nature, it provides a model of approach which is amenable to development education in the full sense of the word.

Another new feature is the establishment of several development studies centres, as was previously mentioned. Insofar as the London School of Oriental and African Studies has been in existence for many decades, this is not an entirely new feature, but whereas the London School has been mainly scholarly/academic in approach, the new institutes are more oriented towards practical research and teaching.

The two places which have recently opened are the Institute for Development Studies at the University of Sussex, and the Overseas Development Group at the University of East Anglia. The former is an interdisciplinary post-graduate institute with a strong emphasis on practical research including work for governments and institutions in developing countries: there is a significant aid orientation with British government finance. It also has a training function for people going overseas to work and for specialized courses for students and officials from developing countries. The group at East Anglia is different in approach, offering the only undergraduate degree in development studies in Britain. It is interdisciplinary, and the group consists mainly of staff from other departments who work together in these courses. Students as well as staff are involved in practical research, including local community studies, and this group was the one in British universities most concerned with relating national and overseas issues.

The potential effect of staff with overseas development experience and research interests is probably greater in Britain than elsewhere because, on the whole, their teaching is spread across all levels of study and because there are very few specialized research institutes without teaching functions.

Colleges of Education are separate from the universities, although education may be studied in universities. It is in the former that teacher-training is carried out, and it is here that the most obvious advances in development education have been made, reflecting the success of various groups in introducing such studies into the secondary curriculum. The existence in Britain of a diverse population has led, as in the U.S.A., to a concern in some circles about the education of culturally diverse children, and teachers are receiving some appropriate training, including the teaching of English as a foreign language. 1/

Working backwards from the local situations in the UK, a combination of the traditional inclusion of colonial history and geography in school courses, and more recent inclusion of studies of the homelands of immigrant children, has become part of the school syllabus in many areas. And while the UK was concerned to make "English ladies and gentlemen" out of her colonail subjects, no strict theory has applied to their integration into Britain, at least none comparable to the American "melting-pot" theory, which has enabled greater flexibility in approach to the national situation. This situation, with increasingly strict laws about Commonwealth immigration, which followed increasing racial tension and rising unemployment, has provided a field of study for scholars from a number of disciplines, but especially sociology and education, and study has tended to be practically oriented. No statistics are available to compare the number of courses in education at universities with those in the colleges, which contain a strong element of social content, but an impression is given that both staff and students in the colleges are engaged in practical as well as theoretical consideration of the problems, and that this is not confined to purely domestic issues.

Teacher-training itself is more practically oriented than in most European countries, and a range of teaching methods is employed, including an emphasis on individual work with children, and relating the classroom to the socio-economic and ethnic background of the children. Increasingly, development education units are being tried in the classroom - units which vary from treatment of topics such as prejudice, poverty and hunger, to ecology and the future, as well as particular country studies. And while in many instances voluntary agencies have played a key role in stimulating and developing units, they have worked closely with individual teachers and with colleges in revising and trialling units. Thus, at the pre-service level, as well as the level of college staff, opportunities exist for development education to be undertaken. This is also so at the in-service level, although perhaps to a lesser degree, and workshops, seminars and conferences are organized, with a range of agencies offering different approaches to national and local as well as Third World issues.

Outside the formal course structures, the situation is both active and varied. British students tend to be younger than their European counterparts, and less mobile in terms of overseas travel, most aiming to complete their degree in the minimum three to four years, and work experience is normally confined to the vacations, since most students can obtain some financial help from local authorities. Campus clubs and societies abound, although probably no more students are involved than elsewhere. There seems to be a strong voluntary service tradition, and these agencies abound in

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1/ See, e.g., Wright, David & Wright, Jill: The Changing World in the Classroom. A survey of development education in British Secondary Schools. London, VCOAD, 1974.

the development field. Some owe their origins to the missionary movement of the 19th century and this tradition is probably exemplified in the fundraising groups today. More recently, groups with a more political flavour have multiplied, dealing with most geographical areas and causes, and many have been stimulated by individuals and groups on campus. Students and staff are involved in off-campus groups, although some agencies feel insufficiently so, and their outside activities are often, but by no means exclusively, participating in informal action or research groups rather than the established agencies. And some active and effective cooperation and involvement exists between university people and agencies.

It is probably amongst informal groups that development education in its fullest sense has arisen, and many of these groups have an education unit built into their organization. This development education may be aimed mainly at schools, at the public at large, or at other interest groups including post-secondary students and staff. A number of on and off campus groups have a marked concern for education and for research/action approaches on a variety of issues. Diversity is evident in approach and goals: it is an interesting sidelight on student extra-curricular activity that although a high level of political sophistication may be found there, the UK is the only Western country where a group such as World University Service is still able to raise funds for aid projects on campus.

Staff are also involved in informal activities, in some cases community originated, but in others they have taken the initiative. Staff and students were involved in the formation of Third World First, a group which is committed financially to aid projects but which has a strong educational base and which is affiliated with OXFAM. Similarly, Academics Against Poverty is another case where staff initiative has been channelled through a non-governmental organization.

Two other sorts of groups have come into being: groups of scholars in a particular area who wish to relate their field of study to more wide-ranging discussion and contact regarding particular issues, such as the Radical Asian Scholars, and ones with a more practical orientation, such as the Intermediate Technology Development Group. The former provides a journal and a forum for discussion; the latter also produces a journal but the bulk of their activity is in the development of intermediate technology, which is carried out through links with individuals and institutions in developing countries.

The whole range of the political spectrum is covered by informal groups. Amongst the more radical, recent innovations have included the provision of alternative news services and resource centres which, while mainly reaching the converted, provide a resource focus on development issues which may reach a more general audience, overseas as well as at home.

Overall, the UK gives the impression of a more involved university community. One contributing factor could be the volunteer service programmes. In most places, this is available mainly to individuals who have already received some training. The British Voluntary Service Overseas scheme encourages students to work for a year or more before undertaking a first degree or between first and second degrees, so that their experience is brought to the university. There are also programmes for service in the UK and in Europe, mainly through workcamps.

The UK has long been looked to as the place where aspiring scholars from the Commonwealth have gone to study. During the great explosion in demand for higher education in the 1960s, some measures, including a higher scale of fees for overseas students, were imposed, but British institutions still have a large number of overseas students, mainly but not exclusively from the Commonwealth. In addition, Britain has been an important place where political refugee students have come (Sweden, France and Switzerland are others), especially following the Czechoslovakian crisis in 1967 and the fall of the Allende government in Chile in 1973. These situations in particular have led to the involvement of British students and staff in finding university places and scholarships for the students, and this has been facilitated by the fact that small numbers of students were already aware of or involved in the political issues underlying the crises, and the presence of the refugee students has further stimulated such interest.

There has been little debate about the appropriateness of the studies undertaken by overseas students in Britain, which no doubt reflects on the one hand the essentially British character of most universities in Commonwealth countries so that courses of study in Britain are seen as essentially the same as at home, only more varied and prestigious. And, on the other hand, some specialized courses relating to tropical areas have been in existence for overseas students for some time. Thus overseas students have been an integral part of British higher education, as they have in France and the Netherlands, for some time, and while they have not necessarily led to changes in development studies, they have provided a reminder to staff and students, and in some instances a specific stimulus as well as a source of first-hand information, for activities related to development issues. They have been included in committee work as well as general activities in a number of organizations.

AUSTRALIA

The concept of development education has been increasingly propounded by voluntary agencies in Australia, but even the related notion, development studies, has only been discussed as such in the last two to three years in the university context. Australia had, until the end of 1974, no specialized institute or centre for development studies. However, courses and activities in the area did exist.

At the undergraduate level, students in humanities and social science may elect to undertake studies of developing countries in their second or third year at most universities. The area focus varies, with Southeast Asia being the most frequent 1/, although the Pacific, Africa and Latin America have been added in recent years. For longer periods, anthropology has been available in several universities, with colonial history and politics covering developing countries from within a predominantly academic/traditional framework. Change became apparent by the mid-sixties, with the establishment of five new institutions and the expansion of the older ones. These new institutions have attempted to avoid mere duplication of existing facilities, and since their establishment more or less coincided with the slow realization of the political implications of Australia's geographical position, this is to some extent reflected in the courses of the newer universities. The difference from the older universities is that the trend is now for multi-disciplinary centres combining history, languages and to some extent politics and economics. All these courses are available to undergraduate students, although specific development-oriented ones are mostly confined to later-year students, especially ones in the honours stream.

As in every other country, far greater possibilities exist at the post-graduate level, where students have more opportunity to choose their own specialized field of interest. Such studies are mostly individual efforts, though the student may have a supervisor who encourages a particular approach or at least refrains from interfering with the student's approach except to assist with the presentation of a dissertation. In many cases, graduate seminars are held, and may be obligatory; they may be geared to the particular research interests of a group of students where the numbers in an area have sufficient interests in common, or on more general aspects of a wide field, or more workshop in nature to analyze specific research problems. The tradition of graduate seminars which provided a high-level forum in a particular research field is breaking down to some extent. Previously almost all higher degrees were obtained by research leading to a thesis; now, coursework as all or part of a Master's Degree is becoming more common and is seen by some as a response to the increasing numbers of students wishing to go beyond a first degree, and by others as a devaluation of first degrees, especially honours ones, since the coursework often contains material which was once covered at the honours level in the first degree.

1/ See Thomas, W.L. Paths to Asia: Asian Studies at Universities in Australia, Centre for Asian Studies, University of Western Australia, 1974.

Interdisciplinary studies do not as yet have a strong base in Australia, although there are some centres and some area studies with at least a multi-disciplinary base. Study for a first degree involves a student in undertaking major and minor sequences, and usually three or four subjects are studied, at least for one year. The coordination involved in multi-disciplinary area studies enables a focus to be provided in course sequences, and also a basis for interdisciplinary understanding. This also provides some mobility at the post-graduate level. A research emphasis is still prevalent, however, and although students choose their field and their institution according to interest, and although fieldwork is required in many areas, the need to satisfy traditional standards, especially since theses have at least one external examiner, decreases freedom to innovate in approach and content.

University staff differ widely in approaches and backgrounds. Australia has probably a very high proportion of overseas staff, especially from the UK, USA, and Canada, and while they bring potential innovation and new ideas to the situation, they are just as likely to bring traditional approaches and an attitude towards Australia as a colony where academic standards have to be maintained or improved. The pool of staff with overseas experience is relatively large, and this experience includes fieldwork and research in developing countries, most often from within a university rather than a government framework. Australia has traditionally kept the public service distinct from both the university and business, and the university has kept itself apart from business and the public service. It is only with the establishment of the Australian Development Assistance Agency in 1974 that real discussion has commenced regarding the contracting of jobs in the aid and development field to universities.

Government, on the other hand, funds higher education in cooperation with the state governments, and government is the main source of research money, with private foundations and industry playing a smaller role except in science. This means that there are theoretically fewer constraints on research areas undertaken, and coupled with generous study leave arrangements (tenured staff may take one year every six, or six months every three years), provide a reasonable encouragement for research. On the other hand, with the exception of the Australian National University and a few isolated appointments in other institutions, all staff have teaching responsibilities and there is some indication that teaching loads are increasing. While this may be seen as a step towards greater integration of teaching and research interests, staff here are little different from their colleagues around the world and a number regard the teaching of undergraduate students in particular as an unpleasant interruption to their personal research. It is almost entirely left to the individual to integrate teaching and research.

Teaching is traditionally carried out through lectures, tutorials and laboratory sessions. Until 1975, numbers of students rose steadily and newer methods, mainly involving lectures by closed circuit T.V. and audio-tutorials, have been used, especially in the sciences. On the other hand, some staff, in some cases under pressure from students, have become increasingly dissatisfied with such mass methods and a variety of new approaches involving various forms of small group techniques, are being tried, usually as a supplement to lectures. One example is the School of Education at La Trobe University, where students are divided into groups of 65 - 75 and work intensively through weekly course meetings, seminars and workshops in the schools where they are undertaking practical teaching, electives and options, with 5 - 8 staff members cooperating in this effort. Monash University has an annual transition conference for a selection of first year students, and has a new programme to enable students to defer taking up their offer of a place to enable them to undertake work experience. A number of special centres now exist within tertiary institutions to initiate and evaluate different teaching methods, to assist staff with their teaching problems and in some cases, to provide training courses for staff at the tertiary level.

The unrest in the universities in the 1960s has also contributed to some changes in teaching, administration and assessment. In most cases, a student is now a member of the highest governing body, and students may be represented on other councils and committees. In some cases, individual departments have a staff-student liaison committee to monitor student reaction to courses. The other area to be affected is assessment, and "abolish exams" is the current catch-cry. In some cases these have in fact been abolished, whereas previously all progress was determined by annual examinations in each subject. Now exams play a smaller and smaller role, especially in the humanities and social sciences, where "take home" exams, "open book" exams or election to take an exam to improve class marks, is possible. This whole process of continuous assessment throughout the year has yet to be evaluated properly, as there is some indication that it spreads the pressure on students throughout the year to such an extent that it cuts down on their involvement in extra-curricular activities. The motto under an examination system was "first term, first year students work; second term, no-one works; third term, everyone works". Now, as the essays and papers pile up, students drop out or suffer severe anxiety and depression, which was formerly confined to the end-of-year period, and while the latter system penalized the consistent student who was a poor examination candidate, the new system also has flaws.

Teaching and assessment are thus undergoing change in Australia. This can be seen as an enabling factor in providing innovation in content, in itself a base for development education to take place. New departments are being formed, especially in the field of environmental studies, and development centres and courses are being offered in a multi-disciplinary setting. In 1975 a new seminar course for honours and masters students in development is being offered at Melbourne University, and a centre to coordinate and strengthen development studies is being established within the post-graduate Research School of Pacific Studies at the Australian National University. It is still possible that the new university, Murdoch, in Western Australia, will establish a chair of irenology, the first serious attmpt to look at peace issues in the country.

Student extra-curricular activity reached its peak in the late 1960s, although probably fewer than 20% were involved even then. As in Britain, fundraising groups such as World University Service existed, with a staff-student base, and with increasing politicization of students, these turned their attention more and more to educational activities. The Australian Union of Students has played a role in stimulating an interest among students in international affairs, Aborigines and Australian educational issues. Other associations with a campus base include International Development Action, various anti-apartheid groups, groups supporting political prisoners, and a similar diversity and aim is apparent as in other first world groups. Workcamps and service/welfare groups have tended to be replaced by more politically active ones, although students may be found in community activities such as tutoring Aboriginal and migrant children, and in free legal and medical centres in underprivileged city areas, in programmes in mental hospitals and in environment action groups. The election of the labour government in December 1972, and with it, the cessation of Australian military involvement in South Vietnam, has lessened the fervour of some student political activity, and the current situation is one of small nuclear action groups around fairly specific issues.

Student groups are also increasingly less campus oriented, with attempts being made to work with trade unions, especially regarding anti-apartheid action, as well as trade and migrant issues. Students may also be found in non-campus agencies. This movement outside campus is probably assisted by the large distances between campus centres, and hence the difficulties for student groups from different cities to meet together. It is, however, also a reflection of the fact that most students live at home while attending university, and their primary attachment is to society outside the campus.

In other ways, students are mobile, and since the early 1960s, the Australian Union of Students has organized group travel, first to India, Japan and Papua New Guinea, and now to other Asian areas, as well as running charter flights to London and the U.S.A., which are similar to student travel services elsewhere. It is interesting, however, that the first overseas travel undertaken by Australian students is still likely to be to the Asian/Pacific region, and this is reflected to some extent in the foci of interest in extra-curricular activities.

It should also be noted that action/activity is the key word in informal groups, and there has been some tendency to criticize them for not applying techniques and insights from their formal studies to their outside activities. A survey undertaken by a politics student in 1968 showed that even the most radical political groups had rarely read the primary source material on which their ideology was based. This is in direct contrast to many student groups in Europe who have tended to be more theoretical than practical in their approach.

Teacher-training has been the province of the state governments, with a very high proportion of students supported by state government scholarships and bonded to serve in the schools for three years on completion of training. This has included those teachers who first obtained a degree from a university, followed by a one-year Diploma in Education from a university faculty of education, as well as those trained in the Teachers' Colleges. The nature of such pre-service training has thus been very much stamped with the characteristics of the department of education of the state in question, and there are notable differences in approach to curriculum and classroom methods between the states. Also, staff have been drawn predominantly from the teaching service of the state in which the college is situated. This is changing now. In 1974 Victoria reorganized the colleges, bringing them closer to amalgamation with the colleges of advanced education, and other states are following suit. The role of education faculties in the universities in the in-service training of teachers is at present under review, in the light of the foregoing developments.

Various levels and degrees of innovation in teaching methods and curriculum are under way in the schools. The movement is away from the set syllabus towards a "unit of work" approach, and there is also an increase in Asian and community studies. The stimulus for such change comes from the Curriculum and Research branches of the state education departments, from subject teachers' associations, teachers' colleges and individual teachers. Voluntary agencies concerned with development education have had more response from teachers, including college staff, than from academics, and have cooperated with them in providing kits and resource materials. However, at the formal level in in-service training, there is neither systematic nor frequent opportunity to go beyond fairly traditional forms of activity. It has been the subject teachers' associations, voluntary agencies and universities, through Bachelor of Education (post-graduate) programmes, that have done more in the field of promoting innovation including development education. The major problem with such a volunteer-based approach is that only the already-interested or committed are exposed. The newer areas of migrant and Aboriginal teaching have gained scant recognition at education department levels although a variety of institutions offer courses with special emphases in these areas at both pre- and in-service levels. At least this field is relatively open for improvement, rather than receiving opposition.

There is a wide range of community activity in which students and staff participate, Community Aid Abroad and Action for World Development (the churches' development education programme) being the most notable.

Australia has long regarded its overseas student programmes as an important part of its aid effort. These students have been assisted by three different government schemes, mainly Commonwealth-based. But over 80% of overseas students in Australia are privately sponsored and are mainly Chinese in origin (from Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong). For sponsored students, special courses are sometimes offered, but mostly they take part in normal courses. They are found overwhelmingly in the science-based subjects and in economics. Welfare facilities have varied and private groups have often been more active than government in this field. They have tended to be isolated, with a low level of participation in extra-curricular activities, although Malaysian and Singaporean students have recently been more active and the situation has almost reached the level of a "diplomatic incident" between the governments!

In some cases staff have taken the initiative in special arrangements and courses for overseas students, especially where staff have had research experience in the country of origin of the students. The question of the relevance of courses to home conditions has been increasingly questioned, although this has come from Australians rather than the students themselves. Nor has the problem of the "brain drain" been considered important because, under the White Australian Policy, very few could ever hope to stay in Australia permanently. Cases may be cited where a student has managed to maintain a student visa for almost 14 years, the required period of residence of a non-European to obtain a resident status, and has then been served deportation orders. This has changed now. However, the most that can be said is that the visible presence of overseas students has been a reminder of Australia's situation in relation to her non-European neighbours.

Four distinctively Australian factors should be pointed out.

1. The existence of the Australian National University. Unlike the other universities, it is funded by the federal government alone and was established as a showpiece in the national capital, drawing students from all states. It now includes undergraduates although it was originally intended as a post-graduate and higher research establishment. It is based on interdisciplinary research schools, is regarded as the élite place for the best scholars, and is generally better funded than the other universities. Some departments are for research alone, the rest specializing in post-graduate study. It is at this institution that research which is more closely related to government, especially policy issues, is conducted, and in the rather hothouse atmosphere of the national capital, there is more contact between academia and government, although the Australian tendency to mistrust academics is still evident.

2. The existence on Australia's geographical doorstep of her main colonial responsibility, the jointly-administered territories of Papua and New Guinea. They are now self-governing and rapidly moving towards independence. Two-thirds of Australia's aid effort continues to be directed here, and much of her interest in development likewise. During the heyday of the colonial era, a special Australian School of Pacific Administration was established in Sydney to train colonial officers. With the establishment of two universities in Papua New Guinea in the late 1960s, and with the accelerated localization of staff at all levels there, this institution first began to admit Papuans and New Guineans and has now almost ceased to function except in certain specialized training fields. In a sense, it was in a strong position to be converted into an Institute of Development Studies, but there is no likelihood that this will take place now, and former staff have been scattered to other institutions. In fact, the question has recently been raised within a pressure group that had, over the past 18 months, been working to establish an Australian Institute of Development Studies, whether or not such studies can be effectively institutionalized nationally, while retaining a real development education thrust.

3. The composition of the Australian population has implications for development studies and education. The original inhabitants, the Aborigines, were always small in number, and policy towards them has only recently emerged from the brutally inhuman through an assimilation phase to one of tentative co-existence. The white population came predominantly from the UK and Ireland until World War II, and now emigrants from Southern Europe including Turkey form the greatest numbers of new arrivals. The fact that most of the population are migrants of varying generations' depth, and that it is expected that most migrants will make Australia their new permanent home, has not created a melting pot approach to Australian society. Rather, assimilation has been assumed, until quite recently, as the most viable goal. This, coupled with the White Australia Policy, which almost precluded non-white immigration, has helped to create a form of chauvinism and isolation from cultural variety. However, the fact that Australia is now virtually a plural society, in which pockets of poverty and underprivilege are closely associated with national/ethnic origin, is gaining reluctant recognition. These groups provide an open field for academic study of minority groups, but in some instances it goes beyond this to an approach which more nearly approximates the research/action model. Students have been involved in this change, including the small trickle from the minority groups who have reached the tertiary level of study.

4. Australia's geographical position in the Asian-Pacific region, as well as the fact that the northern third of the continent lies within the tropics. Reluctantly, Australia has admitted this as an important factor in foreign policy, and it could be said that the proximity to Asia, which has provided a field for academic study, has in turn had repercussions in the political and trade spheres. The study of tropical areas, especially in medicine, agriculture, architecture and engineering, has been included, with Australia seen as the natural laboratory. This, plus the agricultural base of Australian industry and constant reference, even today, to Australia as a relatively under-industrialized country, has led to specialized courses and facilities which have some application for other tropical countries.

Two other factors should be mentioned. Firstly, higher education has become increasingly diversified, which is most clearly related to similar changes in the UK. Technical colleges have in many instances been upgraded to degree-granting institutions, and a new category created, the colleges of advanced education. An attempt has been made to locate some of these in rural areas (most of the universities are in capital cities and only one is not in an urban area), and also to include humanities/general studies for all students. In some ways this is ahead of the universities, where students of scientific and professional disciplines rarely have the opportunity to take courses outside their heavy laboratory and lecture schedules. The colleges of advanced education, while maintaining their technical bias, are proving more innovative in many instances than the universities, being more widely available because of different entrance requirements and a higher proportion of part-time students are catered for here. While staff have much higher teaching loads than in universities, the distinction between the institutions in terms of research versus training is becoming increasingly blurred.

Secondly, since the Labour government came into power in 1972, tuition fees have been abolished at all tertiary institutions. Because of the relationship between parental income and the length of stay of their children in formal educational institutions, this does not seem to have significantly increased the democratization of the tertiary institutions, and in the current economic situation, students from rural areas and of poorer parents remain under-represented. There is also a decline in available living allowance and trainee-ships, and rising unemployment has made it increasingly difficult for students to obtain part-time work. At the start of the 1975 academic year, acceptances of offers of places by new students are down on previous years. This may be a temporary reaction to the economic climate, especially since more children have returned to secondary school beyond the minimum legal age, which is seen as another reaction to rising unemployment. At the height of the rising demand for tertiary study, there were suggestions that a ballot should be held for places amongst all those with matriculation. This has not been put into practice, and the need to do so, which was stimulated by increasing dissatisfaction with the matriculation examinations, may now be obviated. On the other hand, if new school leavers are less keen to pursue their studies, experiments which some universities have tentatively tried in admitting small numbers of mature-age students without matriculation, may be increased and the newest university has in fact admitted its first students this year on the basis of interview alone.

These factors all provide background against which development education priorities and possibilities can be evaluated. On the whole, development education opportunities exist and in some cases are being actively used at the tertiary level. Pressure groups exist to further this cause, but on the whole only a relatively small proportion of the academic community is being reached.

CHAPTER III

SOME DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION MODELS

Introduction

In analyzing the various forms of approach to development education at the post-secondary level, a number of variables will be distinguished. These are:

- The academic discipline involved.
- The extent to which the studies are interdisciplinary, multi-disciplinary or uni-disciplinary.
- The orientation of the programme to teaching and/or research and the balance between these two activities.
- The level at which the teaching takes place - undergraduate or post-graduate.
- The number of years' study available - full major, option, full post-graduate course and so on.
- The number of credits gained and forms of assessment.
- The nature of practical work, if any, and where it is carried out.
- The areas where practical work is undertaken in terms of timing within a programme and duration.
- The personnel involved and the nature of supervision.
- The nature of preparation for practical work, if any.
- The initiators of fieldwork (staff, students and/or the community).
- The sources of funds for fieldwork and whether or not students are paid for it.
- The links with other groups at :
    - . the same institution
    - . other institutions
    - . government
    - . community groups
    - . other agencies (NGOs, UN Agencies, etc.)
- The orientation of research :
    - . pure
    - . applied to practical questions seen by researchers
    - . response to requests from outside agency/group.
- The nature of teaching at each level :
    - . lectures
    - . small group work
    - . individual projects
    - . combinations of the above.
- The ethnic composition of students, especially proportion of foreign-born.
- The experience of students in related fields.
- The national origin of staff.
- The experience of staff in related fields.

- The status of teaching, e.g. option, core course, etc.
- The availability of the course to auditors who are not taking it for official degree/diploma credit but for personal interest.
- The length of time the course/research has been available/undertaken.
- The numbers undertaking it per session.
- The methods by which participants are selected, if any.
- The evaluation of the programme, if any.
- The locus of decision making, e.g. staff only, staff/student.
- The balance between theory and practical problem-solving/experience.
- The prime focus, e.g. training, area studies, topic studies.

In turn, these variables may be grouped together into the following "clusters":

1. Aims and scope of the programme

This includes the focus, the subjects included and the main activities. There is a spectrum of possible aims. At the most basic, the dissemination of information is seen as the most important task, with change of attitude and action to bring about social change at the other end. While it can be argued that it is enough to "start the ball rolling" by putting accurate factual information in front of people so that they can make up their own minds about it, and giving them a framework and some techniques for doing this, it should be recognized that information alone is unlikely to lead to action.

Beyond this level, the range of possible aims is enormous. It is linked to theories of development as well as of education. It is at one time both a theoretical and a practical issue as to whether a "global strategy for development education" is possible and desirable, and the extent to which every conceivable effort must be marshalled. Given the dimensions of the differences in aims and approaches, and the bases for these differences, how can the current range of activities be evaluated and a selection made in order to maximise efforts?

At one extreme there are approaches which are based on a notion of development as a basically economic or single-factor phenomenon, and a "problem" for individual developing countries. At the other, the multifaceted nature of development is recognized as well as the fact that development is a continuum, and that development issues cannot be viewed in isolation in the world. Rather, the inter-relationships between so-called developed and developing countries - aid and trade policies, lifestyles and so on, in one country - will affect others. Thus at this end of the conceptual spectrum, there is a focus on issues across nations and on the inter-dependence of nations. At any one time, the policies of a developed country and their effects on others may be the sole focus of attention, or the problems of the poor or of ethnic minorities in a developed country, both in their own right and as examples of universal processes.

2. Resources, both of people and money.

At one level, the homogeneity or heterogeneity of the individuals regarding such factors as age, sex, socio-economic status, political and religious affiliations, ethnic and national origin, basic education and so on, is of interest, although this is mainly an exercise in classification. What is of greater importance is the type of group, in terms of its organization and task. Most importantly, the way in which the group members interact, especially the type and extent of the leadership and the degree of responsibility and participation of each member, will cut across more superficial ways of classifying groups. It is therefore important to look at both the structure and the dynamics of development education groups, especially where practical work is concerned.

In this case, "resources" include the whole community or relevant sections of it, but more critically, the way in which the community is included at the decision-making and implementation levels, determines the nature of the learning which takes place. While the structure and extent of its formality is related to the dynamics within a group, and will ultimately limit the possibilities for learning, the significance of the dynamics is not necessarily reduced thereby. A university teacher may still create a "democratic" action-oriented group which combines teaching, research and action, and to some extent subvert the formal assessment requirements (or the group members may insist that this takes place), and a non-formal group may find that it has an authoritarian leader where opting out is the only solution. Outside constraints, the individual participants and the material which is brought into the group will affect the learning process and the outcome cannot be entirely predicted by looking at the raw materials. This applies to funds as well - where outside funding is used, clearly the nature of the strings attached is a critical factor. However, even within this, what happens to the individuals using the funds is also important, and the implicit as well as the explicit processes are of interest, so that a piece of research cannot be judged without going into these details.

3. Methods of approach, assessment and evaluation.

Development education is intended to be a learning experience, and therefore cannot ignore broader educational trends in its approach. The very combination of the words "development" and "education" suggests an essential feature, the development of the individual to full humanity through an educational process which is lifelong. Secondly, an essential part of this development is enabling the individual to play a role in the world through an understanding of him or herself and of other people, as individuals and as groups, and of the processes which underlie man in society, whether that "society" is the family, male-female relationships, the political process in a nation/state, race relationships, workers' movements or the economic and political relationships between nations. Thus a holistic approach is important, one which starts with the individual and which emphasizes learning, rather than teaching, since it would be a denial of the nature of development education to assume a static role for each member of the group whether or not that member is called a teacher or a student. Within this broad framework, micro-techniques must be chosen according to the group itself. This will also depend on the conceptual framework, on whether development is seen as a phenomenon to be studied objectively as something that happens (or does not happen) in certain areas of the world, depending on historical, economic and social factors, with the minimal aim of learning about it being to increase knowledge, which is basically a passive approach, or whether an understanding of development and education as inter-related processes which happen "out there" but in which the individual can participate, which is an active approach, is adopted.

The following analysis outlines types or models of programmes, based on the foregoing variables. The variation within each cluster is considered critical for the identification of the models. While in some instances it may appear that the difference between models, or the sorting of programmes into models, is arbitrary, this has not been the intention. Rather, different approaches are distinguished with a view to evaluating them. Further, in the light of the outline of development education put forward in Chapter I, one basis for differentiating models is a distinction between a passive and an active approach. In the former, development and/or developing countries are treated as topics for teaching and research in a basically academic sense. Information and knowledge are goals in themselves, arising out of interest and leading to further learning and research, without any direct relationship to the objects of study or between participants in the study. An active approach, on the other hand, is also based on knowledge and on general principles, but goes beyond this to include active participation in the seeking of knowledge through the way in which it is sought, and is concerned with the way in which learning takes place and with basing further learning on activities which are undertaken as part of the learning. This can be called a research/action approach, a process of reflection, leading to action which forms the basis for further reflection.

The learner and his reactions and attitudes form part of the process, and relationships and change are of greater concern than isolated facts or theories. In short, the passive approach is concerned with information, with facts and the way they are put together, and the active one is concerned with relating facts and theories to people and situations, with changing attitudes as well as with increasing the knowledge of the learner, and with understanding and changing society as well as analyzing it from a basically disinterested point of view.

This distinction relates to four main principles about education:

"1. Education should enable people to take a comprehensive approach to reality.

2. Education cannot happen in isolation from community.

3. There is always a certain formal aspect to education, because any action-reflection process demands that time is organized for reflection, and that the action is analyzed so that its educational elements can be perceived.

4. Education is the process of creating comprehension which will determine any potential action, and give form to a person's perception and assessment of the world and his relations to it." 1/

Development education, in this understanding, concerns a method of approach and a view of the world, of man and of knowledge, as going beyond a study of developing countries to an understanding in which the role of "object" and "subject" in the process is interchangeable.

MODEL I - THE TRADITIONAL UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMME

In this model, a course of study in some aspect of development is undertaken. The object of the course is to acquaint students with an outline of the subject, e.g. development economics or educational planning in developing countries, studied with rigorous attention to the theories current in the literature of the discipline concerned, and illustrated with case studies of particular countries. In most cases, students are self-selected, as such a course will be offered as an elective within a broader field of study, such as economics or politics, once the basic aspects of the discipline have been mastered. Length of study varies from one term/semester (i.e. the shortest unit available) to several years, and may be pursued through to honours level in the first degree. In such cases, the "progression" is into more and more detailed aspects of the subject, keeping within the bounds of a single discipline. The teaching approach is usually one of lectures, with or without supplementary seminars/tutorials, depending on class size, the available numbers of staff and the teaching methods most favoured by the institution. Student assignments are also bound by this, although in most cases beyond the elementary assignments of individual choice may be undertaken subject to the approval of the teacher and the requirements for obtaining the necessary credit towards a degree or diploma. Examinations are also usually built into such programmes.

Most institutions will offer such courses. They are dependent on the availability of suitable staff, most of whom have some actual field experience, and changes in areas used for examples are likely if staff change. In most cases, staff have initiated the courses, and these are on the one hand academically respectable because of their integration into a traditional discipline, and on the other, optional extras, so that in many instances the departure of a particular member of staff who has been teaching development aspects need not mean that he will be replaced with someone also interested in this.

1/ Development Education Dossier, Geneva, WCC/CCPD, 1973.

Students vary, in some instances those wishing to pursue a career in a development field taking them as a form of preparation, in others interest alone will attract them. Usually overseas students from developing countries will be found in them. No extra funding over and above staff salaries is necessary (special library resources may also need to be provided) although in some instances a programme may exist because an endowment has been given for the purpose.

A sub-model consists of multi-disciplinary programmes, by which students can select a cluster of related topics from different disciplines, and these are coordinated officially and administratively allowing some specialization and inter-relating of fields of interest to take place.

MODEL II: THE TRADITIONAL GRADUATE PROGRAMME

This is closely related to the first model, but constitutes a separate category since it includes those programmes which are only available beyond the first degree level. Most typical of these are graduate programmes especially in North America, where the qualification is based on course work alone. Variations occur in the pre-requisites set, in many instances none, in the structure of the degree, in the assessment procedures and in the nature of teaching.

There are two sub-models. In the first, the programme is still concerned with basically one discipline. However, some aspect of development is offered for graduate students within this as their main field of study. Most often, at the graduate level some individual project is also included, which is presented in the form of a dissertation. In this model, such projects are the result of library research rather than fieldwork, although it may be difficult to distinguish between these in some cases where a small number of students may, from time to time, be allowed to undertake field research in the preparation of a dissertation.

In the second sub-model, a post-graduate programme which is multi-disciplinary is provided. These programmes may be offered within an organizational unit which is staffed by people with different disciplinary backgrounds, or by calling in staff from or sending out students to other courses. In the latter case, some special arrangement, administrative and financial, will probably be made to enable the course to gain official status. Sometimes the arrangement is purely informal, where courses are tailored to the needs of individual students, building options onto a core course, for example, a student undertaking a study of educational planning in developing countries who has no prior knowledge of economic planning and who therefore attends, for credit towards his degree, courses for economics students on this topic, although his degree is in education. This is most likely to take place where small groups of students are involved, as in Australia, rather than in the bigger graduate programmes in North America where each programme tends to be self-sufficient and either caters itself for such needs or does not permit courses beyond those offered within the programme.

For both sub-models, teaching methods depend on the number of students, but usually involve some lectures and more seminar discussions where students themselves take it in turns to lead the discussion. There is likely to be more informality than in undergraduate courses, as students are more senior and closer to belonging to the "academic club", and a greater degree of individual contact between staff and students, especially if the students have to present a dissertation at some stage of the course.

These programmes are likely to attract students with some experience in development work, from both developed and developing countries.

MODEL III: THE PRACTICAL UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMME

This model, like the first one, is concerned primarily with first degree or diploma students. The essential differences are two-fold. Firstly, practical experience is built into the requirements. Such programmes may be an extension of the first model, so that after completing a theoretically oriented course, at a later stage practical work is then available or required. Or it may be a complete programme in which there are no prerequisites and both theory and practice are combined in the one course. The second difference follows from the practical work requirements, which involves more group work, and is carried out in selected local communities so that community issues rather than developing country ones are the main focus. This is usually necessitated because of the limitations on time for undergraduates and the lack of funds to enable them to travel in order to undertake practical work or field research.

In some cases students undertake such programmes as they are a required aspect of training for certain professions, although there is usually a choice in the sort of practical work undertaken. For example, where teachers-in-training are required to undertake teaching practice in schools, the choice to work in a school with a high proportion of non-native speaking students would be considered a "development education option" if different types of school were available. Such options are dependent on the nature of the local community, and preparation for and the actual nature of the practical work are critical. If students are unprepared, or descend on the community for a limited period of time merely to elicit information for some required piece of work, not only is the experience of minimal value to the students, but it is likely to create resentment in the community at the interference, and may spoil opportunities for better prepared and oriented research. A naive do-good approach may be as dangerous and counter-productive as a totally objective or disengaged one.

Often the sorts of students who opt for practical courses either do so out of some dissatisfaction with more theoretical courses, out of a desire to help people, or see practical work as a soft option. All these reasons underline the need for preparation in order to bring students to an understanding of the sorts of situations in which they will be working, and to ensure that practice does not merely become an option to theory. Ongoing opportunities for consultation, guidance and evaluation are ideally important aspects of these courses.

Practical work at this level is usually confined to one discipline, mainly because of the time involved and because to make it even multi-disciplinary implies a level of co-ordination and cooperation between staff and administrative units which is rarely found in higher educational institutions. It may be part of programmes in a wide range of disciplines, including some of the newer ones such as environmental studies.

Overseas students are usually under-represented in such programmes, unless practical work is mandatory.

The duration of the experience varies from a few sorties in order to obtain data, to a term, semester or in rare cases, a year. It will hardly ever be provided below the second year level. Forms of assessment vary, although a report, individual or occasionally group, is most common. In some cases, the student's performance during the actual practical sessions will also be assessed.

MODEL IV: THE GRADUATE PRACTICAL PROGRAMME

Like Model II, this one is based on post-graduate work, the main difference being in the undertaking of practical work. The nature of the practical work varies with the disciplines involved, but the prime purpose is for the gathering of data, which is presented in the form of a dissertation for assessment and award of the relevant degree.

In most cases, relevant undergraduate courses form a prerequisite for undertaking practical work for a higher degree. In addition, in almost all programmes, at least informal seminars on wider issues than individual projects, either of a theoretical or methodological nature, are available and/or prescribed. General seminars or courses, either in one discipline or several, may also be available.

Preparation for fieldwork is likely to be more readily available than for undergraduates, and it will consist less of orientation to professional training than to research. Provision of specific skills such as languages may be included, with the research to be undertaken being the primary objective. Students are supervised in the process of research by at least one member of staff, depending on the requirements of the institution. The nature and extent of this supervision depends both on individual staff and individual students, and varies from close guidance at every stage, to tokenism or even interference. In a few cases, graduate students are included in research teams comprised mainly of staff. The student's role in these varies, but usually the student has less say in the way in which the research is undertaken and acts more as an assistant to the senior investigator. This may enable a student to get into the field, on funds provided for the senior person, as funds are on the whole becoming scarcer for research workers at the graduate level, although it could be argued that the keen student will find a way to go to the field, even if it means working part-time and prolonging the duration of study in order to finance his own fieldwork.

Funding varies widely. In some cases, a department may be able to obtain funds from general university or even outside sources, to enable students to undertake fieldwork. This will depend on factors such as the status of a department or individuals within it, so that they can argue effectively for funds for such purposes, which usually reflects the standing of the subjects in the institution as a whole and the flexibility of approach to different forms of learning. No-one would question that physical scientists need money for research and that practical research is essential in the subjects; it is far more difficult to argue that educators or political scientists may also wish to undertake practical research which requires money!

The areas in which fieldwork is undertaken vary, and both local and foreign experience is included in this model, if the subject of the research comes within the general definition of development studies.

Even if the background of the students is multi-disciplinary, the requirement to produce a dissertation usually implies that this is undertaken from a particular disciplinary framework, even if the student is attached to a multi- or inter-disciplinary centre. Beyond this, there is no guide to the sorts of students undertaking such research in terms of ethnic origin, age, sex or work experience.

Assessment is by dissertation and oral defence of the thesis may be included. In some instances, general and specific examinations may form a first stage towards the degree.

MODEL V: STUDY/SERVICE

This model may be characterized as a study/service one. Interestingly, this approach is most common in developing countries where the need to integrate students into the community and to use their skills in the service of the nation, at least for the period of study, has led governments and other agencies to establish schemes requiring or encouraging certain students to participate in community projects while they are studying.

In industrialized countries, such schemes are far less common although they are increasing. The aim is to provide some community service based on the particular skills which the students possess or are in the process of acquiring. Practical experience is also considered important in gaining mastery over the subjects involved. In most cases, such a programme is offered as an option for which students volunteer. Such options are usually only available after some training and more theoretical study has been undertaken; they are available at later undergraduate or post-graduate stages, and some selection and training of volunteers is usually integrated into the programme.

Either groups from a single discipline, or teams from a group of disciplines, participate. Staff are involved in differing degrees at various stages of the programme, and agencies outside the institution are likely to be involved in the placement of students and to some extent, in their supervision. In the case of service overseas, governments or staff at another institution may also be involved.

The length of service varies from short concentrated periods to regular weekly programmes, vacation blocks or even a full year. According to the duration of the experience, so too differing arrangements will be made for more direct teaching, with regular classes or discussion periods at one end, and occasional sessions with staff at the other, either requested by the students or on the initiative of staff. Another variable is whether or not the local host community and/or other agencies are involved in discussion sessions, and the extent to which discussion is problem-oriented or designed as a means of relating experiences to broader issues, including theoretical ones.

Students may work in integrated teams, in groups assigned to a particular community group, institution or agency, or individually, and there are differing philosophies underlying the different methods of placing students and different emphases on teamwork as a significant aspect of the programme. This is often related to the overall philosophy of the role of such experience in the learning process, and the nature of supervision or guidance in that process.

Specific personality traits and motivation are likely to characterize students undertaking such work, although these will vary from programme to programme. There is a tendency for students with some prior experience in similar work, through association with informal student or community programmes, to select such options, or for some to use it as a trial run for future full-time employment.

There is a tendency for such programmes to be mainly concentrated in the so-called professional disciplines (i.e. those with a fairly direct vocational aspect, e.g. social work, education), and to be mostly available at the undergraduate level. The host community is usually one geographically close to the institution, as it is easier to place students, supervise them and ensure that a job of work is done, although more infrequently, overseas assignments may be possible.

Funding varies. In some instances, a special grant to the institution enables this to take place, and students will be paid for the work, especially if it is full-time for an extended period, and more especially if change of residence is necessary. More infrequently, outside agencies will provide funds, and it is also recognized in some instances that payment of students is not necessary, and may in fact introduce unwarranted biases or principles.

This model is most often found in English-speaking countries, especially at the university as opposed to the teacher-training college level, and is related to different philosophies of education. Examples are becoming more common, where the educational institution is geographically located in an ethnically diverse or economically poor area.

Assessment is predominantly by written report from the students, but may include assessment of the job-performance, and community agents, in some cases, contribute to this. It is one kind of programme which is more likely to have some form of evaluation built in, either to justify its continuation to sceptical colleagues, or to community agents, or to both, or merely to keep a check on the whole process to enable it to continue, especially as students are far less under the eye of staff than in other learning situations.

MODEL VI : RESEARCH/ACTION

This is similar to Model V in some features, but differs in aims. Whereas in V, helping the community and the development of skills, are the main objectives (e.g. the University Year for ACTION in the USA states "By this programme, ACTION hopes to link the needs of low income communities to educational institutions in order to help meet the needs of the poor." 1/), the starting point in Model VI is the student. This is summed up in the Preliminary Report from the Internationalization Committee of the Office of the Chancellor of Swedish Universities:

> "The general internationalization motive relates to the function of education in developing personality and in providing general knowledge leading not to a specific vocation but to life in society in general. Society itself is becoming more and more internationalized.
>
> From an ideological point of view, one might say that education can contribute toward international solidarity and equalization. But one can also express this in terms of a rational and scientifically well-founded sense of self-preservation. The internationalization of education is one of the steps necessary to enable human co-existence in a shrinking world.
>
> Through knowledge of, and understanding for, other countries and peoples one can also understand oneself and one's situation better, and put this into perspective. One can get away from a one-sided ethnocentric viewpoint which causes national conditions and values to appear self-evident, thus providing a yardstick with which to measure and judge others. A larger perspective can help solve even purely domestic problems and tasks." (p. 13)

From this basis, programmes are designed to enable the student through the learning process to increase his own understanding, both of himself and of others, to develop and change attitudes, and to acquire and practice skills. The ideal movement is from the individual to "global responsibility", so that the individual not only learns about certain things and acquires skills, but tests these in actual situations which then form the basis for further learning. This is a research/action model, since it too is based on study, on research, and on acquiring information, but emphasizes action in relation to this as an essential part of the learning process.

In terms of the variables previously outlined, programmes in this category are predominantly, though not exclusively, at the later undergraduate level. They tend most frequently to be multi- or inter-disciplinary in approach, and to involve mainly students from the social sciences and humanities. Duration varies, and may be up to three years,

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1/ Quoted in The Waianae Project, by Melvin Ezer, College of Education, University of Hawaii, 1973.

although two or less are more common. The balance between institution-based study and practical experience varies, but the practical work is an essential aspect. This practical work, as in other models, is most frequently carried out in the local community although not exclusively so. The range of practical options is large, from action on campus, through work with various community groups, to local political action, in conjunction with informal student groups and community groups (this is especially so in the Third World Centre at the Catholic University of Nijmegen). Funds, certainly large amounts, are not involved; vacation and part-time work by students is usually considered sufficient to provide them with money, and the type of work undertaken in this way may be arranged through the programme or even required as part of it, to enhance the students' experience.

The approach to learning is distinctive. Ideally, at least, all participants are involved as far as possible in decision-making about the course and the way it is run, and in the actual running of it. Staff are regarded more as resource people than as teachers, and in some instances students with particular knowledge or experience will lead or chair groups. Seminars/workshops are the most common ways in which formal learning takes place, and staff work closely with students during the practical phase of the programme. In this phase, the host community is consulted and plays a role in determining its course, and sometimes in evaluating students, and the emphasis is on the community and not just agency representatives working there. Regular opportunities will be provided for reflection on the work and for determining the next phase, and ideally the end-point reached is open, depending on the participants and the progress of the programme.

Assessment is usuelly multiple. Some formal assessment such as written papers may be required to satisfy general institutional stipulations. But more important, in terms of the course philosophy, is evaluation by participants, including self-evaluation and peer evaluation, of both the task undertaken and the learning which has taken place, both theoretical and experiential. In addition, "objective" methods such as before and after tests of attitudes may also be included.

Perhaps the most distinguishing feature of this sort of programme is the dual emphasis on analysis and integration. The ability to deal with theoretical material and to analyze situations, and to carry out some activity based on this, leading to a re-examination of the original starting point, and the ability to relate individual experience or experience in one situation, to other experiences, is vital. Thus, while most practical work will be carried out locally, the emphasis is on ways in which the local situation compares with others, and with building bridges in knowledge and experience from the individual and the particular to the more general, and ultimately universal. This is embodied in the way in which research and action are integrated, and also the integration of different approaches and disciplines. Understanding for action, and action to provide data for reflection, is the distinctive approach in these programmes.

MODEL VII: MANPOWER TRAINING PROGRAMMES

Loosely grouped together in this model are training programmes for people who wish to work in developing countries or in communities designated underprivileged. In most cases, they are mainly for students from developing countries.

While such courses may constitute a special degree programme, especially at the master's level, it is more common now for them to be of shorter duration or for a diploma or some other form of certification - six months to two years is the normal length. A first degree is usually a prerequisite, and in addition, a certain amount of relevant experience may be required for students before admission to the programme.

The emphasis varies, from courses run exclusively for overseas students, to ones with half overseas and half local or some other proportions. In the case of local students, most frequently those who have been working in developing countries either for government, private enterprise or voluntary agencies, will be attracted to the programme.

Subject-matter also varies, although the tendency is for these courses to be relatively highly specialized in fields such as business administration, educational planning and so on. Two forms of organization are found, one where the focus is on a geographical area, within one or more disciplines, and one where a particular set of problems forms the main focus. Whether they are uni-disciplinary or multi-disciplinary also varies, depending on the course aims, for example, highly skilled manpower training, refresher courses for experienced fieldworkers, or general courses for people of medium seniority and some experience. The duration of the courses also varies.

Field experience may be built into the course, especially if it is for a post-graduate degree, but more often the intention is to build onto the field experience, giving students an opportunity to reflect on that experience. Teaching tends to be through small seminar groups and individual projects form the main means of assessment. These are usually in the field in which the student has worked or will work, and involve close contact with the supervisor.

The staff working in such programmes have on the whole more field experience, especially through various forms of non or extra university work, than generally in development studies. There is often built-in follow-up especially when students are drawn from a country or a programme where staff have been and continue to work or where there are formal institutional links, and there is a greater chance that evaluation will also be built into the programme, both in terms of performance in subsequent jobs and in actual performance during the course. There may even be a transfer-of-training element, so that at the end, or even throughout the course, specific attention is given to ways of applying knowledge gained on return home or in a new working situation, and of training ancillary workers and colleagues, thus multiplying the benefits from training.

In most cases, such programmes are funded in whole or in part by government or other agencies or foundations, and individual students may be assisted by their home governments. The programmes usually come within official, non-governmental organization or international agency aid, and are gradually replacing more diffuse overseas student programmes, especially at the undergraduate level. Such financing may limit students to those from developing countries, although the importance of training local people for overseas work is also being recognized and may even be included in aid budgets.

A sub-category rather than sub-model, is where institutional links exist between a place of study in a developed and a developing country, in which provision is made for exchange of staff. It is general for staff from developing countries to have a relatively light formal teaching load when they come abroad, and for opportunities for their own further study and experience to be built into the exchange, especially where heavy work or teaching loads prevent the opportunity to write or further their own research or studies at home.

Another variant consists of fellowship programmes with no residential requirements or with minimal ones. These are usually to enable people to gain a further qualification on the job. Correspondence courses, plus supervised work either from the overseas institution, its members working in the country in which the students are situated, or some panel of local and overseas advisors, will be organized. Residence abroad may consist of a brief (six weeks to six months) intense period of study or orientation, the students then returning home to complete a project assignment, or a residential period at the end of the programme to integrate findings and prepare a document.

MODEL VIII: THE INTERNATIONALIZED INSTITUTION

This is the most rare model. Programmes which fall into the various other models will take place within it, but over and above that, the whole institution is oriented to providing an international dimension throughout. Two outstanding examples best illustrate this model.

The first is Michigan State University, USA, which adopted an international approach on the directive of the president in 1956. Special funds are provided for the purpose, including ones for encouraging overseas students and providing special advisory services for them, encouraging programmes in all faculties and courses with an international flavour, especially through the organization of inter-disciplinary area studies, and encouraging and facilitating research at every level which has an international dimension. Thus, a relatively high proportion of students, especially at the graduate level, are studying other countries (mostly, within a single discipline), and a guide to the international options for study is published regularly. Also, a relatively high proportion of staff come from, or have experience both in research and work, in developing countries, as well as in Canada and Europe. This is facilitated by links with other institutions, both within the USA, especially through the Midwest Universities Consortium for International Activities, and in other countries, and this promotes staff and student exchanges.

The other noteworthy example is Sweden, where a systematic attempt is being made to internationalize all university education - in fact, all education. Two main motives are distinguished, the "general internationalization motive", arising from a sense of global responsibility, and the "labour market motive", arising from the internationalization of vocational functions. The approach is two-fold: the establishment of new general courses, especially at the first degree level, which are designed to consider basic international questions and assist students to realize and change their own attitudes to the world, and the inclusion of an international perspective in all courses. Provision is being made to assist staff to develop these courses through techniques such as visits overseas and seminars locally, especially emphasizing contact with other groups and institutions which are already undertaking such programmes. 1/

MODEL IX: THE RESEARCH INSTITUTE

Although the main aim of this survey has been to look at programmes which involve both staff and students, a proliferation of specialized institutes which are related to universities and which are primarily for research, necessitates their inclusion. This is based on two factors - they provide an outlet for staff and especially for students who have become interested in development issues, to pursue this interest at a more detailed and individualized level, and through seminars and other means, they provide a learning situation, especially where graduate students or undergraduate assistants may be working in something of an apprenticeship situation. Thus, some teaching takes place in these institutes, mainly through seminars and often with the help of visiting specialists.

In most instances, graduate students are attached in various ways, either undertaking a higher degree solely by research leading to a dissertation, or carrying out the research part under the supervision of institute staff. This may in fact be a preferred way to undertake graduate research, since most institutes are strongly oriented to team research and have good facilities and research conditions. It is common for institutes to have relationships with teaching departments, and for a small number of tenured staff and a greater number of shorter-term ones (2 - 5 years) to be appointed. This is especially suitable for the appointment of overseas visitors.

1/ Internationalizing Education, Office of the Chancellor of the Swedish Universities, Stockholm, 1974.

Funding varies from private endowments to government, and extra funds from government, foundations and international agencies may be provided for special projects. It is usually easier to obtain funds for research than for teaching institutions where research comes second.

One effect of this funding is that a relatively high proportion of the research is of a contract nature. Institutes may in fact be set up as a "think tank" for non-university agencies. Often practical research of a problem-solving nature is the mainstay of these institutes. Whether or not they are predominantly single, multi or inter-disciplinary depends on the purpose for which they have been established, the inclinations and initiative of staff, and the nature of research undertaken.

MODEL X: COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

Programmes in this model are predominantly non-certification courses. In some instances, adult or continuing education programmes are attached to a tertiary institution; even where they are not, university staff are often involved in leading them, with a variety of motives from ones of principle concerning this form of education to basically monetary ones. In other instances, programmes are more specific and include in-service training of teachers, and summer schools which are not necessarily for course credit, and often include languages as an important aspect of the programme.

Variation is introduced in the duration, the locus (on or off campus), whether or not practical experience is the basis for the programme, teaching methods (lectures and group discussions are most common), and in subject-matter. The aims are generally to provide an opportunity for members of the community to undertake study in areas which are normally only available to students enrolled for credit courses. In most cases, no educational prerequisites are set, except in the example of in-service training and professional up-dating courses, although professional organizations are more often responsible for these.

Funding, other than the payment of teachers, is not often involved: students are usually charged fees on the basis of people being more appreciative of and more likely to persevere with something for which they have paid. These fees may be waived in some cases; they may be for the provision of material, hire of rooms and equipment, and in some cases government may fund the whole programme indirectly through recurrent grants to the organizing institution.

A special case is that of the Open University, pioneered in the UK and now spreading to other countries. While certification and the award of a degree is the ultimate goal and design of such programmes, they fit best into this model on the basis that they provide opportunities of study for sections of the community, including the disabled, the isolated and the house-bound, far beyond the range of campus-oriented programmes. Further, there is greater flexibility in entrance requirements, range of topics for study and teaching approaches. Correspondence units, supplemented by special radio and/or TV talks and discussions, and short residential sessions, with students under the supervision of one or more tutors, are used. Assessment is usually by written assignment, and a small fee for materials is usually charged.

CHAPTER IV

EVALUATION

Problems of Evaluation

The concept of evaluation implies the existence of situations which are in some way comparable, and some standards or ideals with which they can be compared. There are many problems associated with this as it applies to a cross-national study of development education, some important ones being:

1. The difficulty of finding a common starting point and agreement on what is being evaluated.

2. The choice of aims for the evaluation process. Thus, an increase in knowledge after a course of study has been undertaken, a change in attitudes, the acquisition of a skill, or the performance of a written exercise demonstrating understanding of the subject or subjects studied, or the performance of a practical exercise, are all possible aims in the evaluation of individual programmes. Evaluation in these terms is closely related to the aims of the programme and the "success" with which it has been carried out. On the other hand, a more general objective, such as the increase in the awareness and understanding of individuals, is both more difficult to establish, and to reach agreement on what constitutes an.increase in awareness and understanding.

3. The choice of techniques. Of those programmes which were included in the survey which had been evaluated, in most cases this was done by the staff leading the programme and involved either an objective, paper-and-pen measure of increased knowledge or skill, or of attitude change; an assessment, in the case of practical work, of the efficiency and skill with which the work was executed, or some questionnaire evaluation by participants of the value to them of the programme. In the latter, wide differences were noted, from comments on how the programme could have been more useful, to changes in outlook and/or behaviour as a result of the course. Only in one case was there any follow-up after a time interval to see if there was any change in evaluation by individuals, or if they had actually taken any steps to implement new insights gained. While this is in part a reflection of the relatively short time since the introduction of development education programmes, it goes beyond this to a lack of perceived need for evaluation, especially where programmes are of doubtful status in an institution. In this case, evaluation may be seen as a threat to the programme, although this may be reversed if it is seen as a means to justify the programme. The lack also reflects inadequate means to undertake evaluation.

Other techniques which may be used include self-evaluation by the participants, the use of interviews for more in-depth tracing of individual reactions [1], follow-up to assess behaviour and attitude change at varying times after the conclusion of the programme, changes in choice of career as a result of a particular programme, increased participation in related informal activities, the selection of other courses or programmes on development issues, and so on.

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[1] See, e.g. the approach based on interviews which have been interpreted qualitatively by a psychologist, used in the evaluation of the experience of volunteers and experts overseas, used by Lindholm, S. Appointment with the Third World, Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, Uppsala, 1974, and of the experience of participants in a study-tour of Latin America, by Lindholm, in press.

4. In the cross-national situation, the problem of comparison arises in every aspect, but especially regarding:

i) The socio-cultural, political and economic framework in which the programmes are being carried out. This will not only facilitate or impede the introduction and operation of certain programmes, but provides through the socialization process the value framework for individuals in that society, both teachers and students. This starts with language [1], and moves out beyond that to the media, political and economic conditions and priorities, the ethnic composition of society and so on.

ii) The education system. This will determine the prerequisites, the forms of teaching, the types of assessment, the sorts of students, the range and type of courses, the diversity of institutions of learning and the ease and direction of innovation and change. This is especially important in questions of comparing the extent to which a programme is innovative, the limitations on fieldwork and course structures such as the number and range of options, the level at which they may be undertaken, the extent to which they may be undertaken, and all the details of equating qualifications which continue to pose problems in the standards-jealous world of the professions.

Comparative educators have different methodological approachesto these problems, none of which has general approval as the best way, and it is in fact inherent in all fields involving cross-national studies that such lack of agreement on methods of study may be found. The anthropologists have accepted an approach based on cultural relativism, in which each society is considered a unique entity to be understood only in terms of its own criteria and values. However, this has not stopped anthropologists from developing general theories based on communality between different societies, and the facts of contact between societies and of social change have led to a revision of the absolute (sic) relativist position. Other approaches have attempted a two-stage process whereby the social framework is described and the aspect studied is related to this, and then compared with the same or similar processes/factors in another culture.

A practical and useful solution seems to imply a two-stage process of evaluation within a cultural setting, and then comparing this with some more general model.

5. The desirability of evaluation and the role of the evaluator. Within the framework of development education which has been adopted in this report, self-evaluation by participants as a continuous rather than a discrete process, becomes important, if not the most important aspect of evaluation. This follows from a notion of development as "above all a question of values. It involves human attitudes and preferences, self-defined goals, and criteria for determining what are tolerable costs to be borne in the course of change." [2]

This is further complicated when it is linked to the evaluation of the educational aspects, using as a definition of the purpose of education both individual/personal goals, and social ones, which include a cultural, a socializing, a socio-political, an economic, a differentiation, a selective and a democratization function. [3] This is resolved in terms of this survey by looking at both content and method of teaching/learning, for evaluation. Further, since the purpose of this survey was not only to provide yet another list of development programmes, but to make recommendations regarding ways in which communications may be facilitated between those involved, and ways in which UN agencies may consider ways to increase and assist efforts, evaluation based on comparison has been attempted. This is severely limited, based on the experience of one researcher, who was able to visit or contact only a limited number of programmes. 1/

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[1] For example, the word "lära" in Swedish is used for both teaching and learning which implies an attitude to the two processes.

[2] Goulet, Denis: "An Ethical Model for the Study of Values", Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 41, 1971, p. 205, quoted in Tate, Sean: "Anthropological Perspectives on Evaluation in Development Education", Interchange, Vol. 4, No. 4, 1973, pp. 27-8.

[3] Krajnc, Ana: "Possible Functions of Education", in Readings in Education, CUSO, 1974.

Bias is an obvious and inherent danger in evaluation which goes beyond that of individual participants. While objectivity may be desirable in certain fields of study, it is difficult to achieve and in the question of an area in which acceptable standards do not exist and where values and attitudes are an integral part of the subject, it is not unqualifiedly desirable. Goulet has provided a useful approach to the question of individual bias in cross-cultural situations. The individual can:

i) acknowledge to himself that his own superiority is but a relative superiority, attributed to him by virtue of the ethnocentrism dominant in his own society;

ii) reflect on the powerlessness of his own knowledge and wealth to answer basic value dilemmas posed by the development process. This should make him humble about his skills;

iii) accede to the same kind of cultural consciousness of his own values - usually latent in his programme, policy, plan or image of development - that the weak partner seeks of his own values. 2/

My approach has been to try to obtain as much background information as possible, including aspects relating to the socio-political "climate" and the educational system and this information is included in Chapter II. Further, by attempting to spell out the approach to development education which I have taken, it is hoped that some consistency has been achieved and that, by providing such information, readers may add their own interpretations and conclusions. A note should be made, however, of another source of bias, and that is the reactions of those interviewed to the interview and the interviewer. While in most instances people were most cooperative, in some cases there seemed a reluctance to give information about programmes, and others seemed over-anxious to paint a particular picture of the programme and also to make suggestions concerning recommendations for the report which were at times most valuable and at others bordered on personal advantage-seeking.

Taking all the foregoing into account, and adding my own hesitancy to engage in evaluation, this chapter is offered in the following form:

i) Wherever possible, programme content and methods are taken into account in the evaluation.

ii) A strong underlying consideration is the use to which the evaluation will be put, especially for increasing awareness of different approaches and their strengths and limitations, and for providing some guidelines for action at the supranational level to stimulate new initiatives and to assist effective efforts, especially through increasing communication and interaction.

iii) A major factor in the evaluation is the effectiveness in implementing those development efforts which best exemplify the concept of development education which has been adopted here.

iv) Each model outlined in Chapter III is dealt with separately, and an attempt is then made to offer some general comments.

1/ See, e.g., Walmsley, Norma. Canadian Universities and International Development, Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1970; Everts, P. A Survey of International Studies in the Netherlands, Leiden, 1974; "Government-sponsored social and economic development research", OECD Liaison Bulletin, No. 2, 1973; Directory of development research and training institutes in Europe, OECD Liaison Bulletin, No. 2 & 3, 1974; Directory of development research and training institutes in North America, OECD Liaison Bulletin, No. 1, 1974.

2/ Goulet, op. cit. p. 62.

MODEL I: THE TRADITIONAL UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMME

This model is the one most frequently available at the undergraduate level. It provides participants with information and a theoretical framework, and thus contributes to increased knowledge about certain questions. It does not inherently enable real contact with the objects of study or provide an opportunity for students to examine their own position in regard to these objects, since it tends to actively preclude emotional or action components in approach to the subject matter, and tends also to lead to a compartmentalization of knowledge if carried out within a single discipline. The greatest limitation from the development education point of view is the method of teaching and assessment most frequently applied, which limits student participation and keeps interest within fairly academic bounds. It has certain advantages in being able to deal with large numbers of students, and the actual gains to student participants are to some extent open-ended, depending on the actual students. Where such courses are compulsory, this advantage is counterbalanced by the effect of compulsory activity which may lead to tokenism if students see it simply as an unfortunate means to some other end. Another counterbalancing factor is that this approach to a subject may preclude or affect a later and different experience, since it conditions participants to perceive the topics in a certain way.

Area or topic approaches offer advantages in terms of widening understanding which single-discipline studies lack.

MODEL II: THE TRADITIONAL GRADUATE PROGRAMME

This has more advantages than the undergraduate programme as, in many cases, prior knowledge of certain basic theories and facts is assumed, enabling study at a greater depth. This is enhanced where the programme is multi-disciplinary, although without some attempt to integrate approaches and not merely look at something from different, even discrete, aspects, this advantage is not large. Teaching techniques are also more flexible and greater opportunity is provided for students to follow their individual interests in choice of assignments/projects. The "depth" or detail of study may be a disadvantage in leading to a further compartmentalization of knowledge, and in removing the learner even further from the objects of study. It can thus reinforce those isolating factors apparent in Model I, and because of the requirements of assessment, further inhibit student consideration of other approaches to the topic. It does, however, provide an opportunity for an individual to gain a stronger grasp and greater knowledge of a subject, which may be used in subsequent programmes or individual experience.

MODEL III: THE PRACTICAL UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMME

This offers some opportunity for participants to learn practical skills and to test theories against actual situations. The individual is more involved personally, and examples may be cited where actual experience may lead to intense self-questioning and re-thinking of individual positions. This will be helped or hindered, depending on the way in which individuals are prepared, the extent and nature of support and guidance given while undertaking the actual practical work, and the way in which theory and practice are integrated. The more preparation and support the individual is given, and the extent to which opportunities for integration of theory and practice are allowed throughout the programme, rather than being merely tacked on at the end or even omitted, the more the individual will gain from the experience,both as an individual and as a future professional in a related field.

More flexibility is also possible in teaching methods, with group participation in seminars, discussions and workshops a desirable goal.

Disadvantages may include compulsory practical work with insufficient preparation of students, unsuitable or inflexibile placements, and over-supervision or under-supervision. The experience may be limited by assessment requirements which emphasize either theoretical or practical aspects to the detriment of the other, or by inflexibility which makes no allowance for individual differences in experience, ability or limitations.

This model does provide an opportunity to go beyond the theoretical and may offer possibilities for real integration of theory and practice, and even of multi-disciplinary approaches. Depending on the availability of placements and the willingness of the community to offer itself as a "laboratory", as well as timetable requirements in other subjects which the student may also be undertaking, numbers are often fewer in practical programmes than in more traditional ones where size of lecture rooms and staff numbers are the main limits on numbers of students.

MODEL IV: THE GRADUATE PRACTICAL PROGRAMME

This is very similar in advantages and disadvantages to Model III. Opportunities for more extended practical work and a longer time for preparation and the reflection/integration process to take place, are possible. It may be more difficult for personal involvement of students and openness to the experience if prior training has been predominantly theoretical, since the higher up the educational ladder one goes, the more isolated and even élitist the individual may become. Further, an undesirable degree of isolation may also come about where supervision is minimal or individuals are working in separate and disparate projects with little contact with each other. The more flexible and more personalized teaching may be offset by more rigid assessment requirements which take almost no account of individual performance in the practical situation but only the product in terms of written work. Further, because of this, the individual may be inhibited in his openness to the experience and the practical work of data gathering reinforces this inhibition. An arrogant attitude develops in which the community is studied as an object. However, given flexibility in approach to the situation and to individuals, preparation and an ongoing reflection on and evaluation of practice in the light of theory and vice versa, this model may go well beyond Model II in providing real development education opportunities for a select number of students.

MODEL V: STUDY/SERVICE

The advantages of this model lie in the emphasis on carrying out a job, rather than gathering data. In terms of the way in which the learning takes place, it comes closer to the development education approach than the previous models. Its limitations lie in the preparation of students, which will determine their attitude to the people with whom they are working, and the extent to which it is co-working or a more arrogant and condescending form of "help". Such an approach is likely to be counterproductive if it reinforces naive attitudes of "do-gooding" which make the doer feel good and may achieve a certain job of work, but leave the basic attitudes of the student unchanged and do not increase interpersonal understanding or real encounter with people. The framework in which the work is carried out, the selection of participants, the extent to which the "hosts" are consulted at various stages of the programme, the extent to which reflection and further learning are integrated throughout the experience, where this takes place, the length of contact, the nature of supervision and guidance, whether or not there is a financial reward, and assessment requirements must all be taken into account in determining whether this is a valuable individual and community experience, or merely an exercise in condescension and tokenism. 1/

1/ For a further discussion of the whole approach to study/service, see, e.g. Re-thinking community development, report of a WUS Workshop, Manila, 1973.

Because of the often dubious academic status of such programmes at the tertiary level, some evaluations have been made. The emphasis has been on evaluation by teachers, with the performance of students in the work situation and "changes in client behaviour" and in student behaviour being the most common variable included. 1/ The use of self-evaluation and evaluation from the community would be of assistance in assessing the value of such programmes to all concerned.

MODEL VI: RESEARCH/ACTION

This model comes closest to embodying those goals of development education and their underlying principles which have formed the basis for this study. It has the advantage of starting with individuals, and aiming to increase their awareness and understanding of both themselves and the world, through the study of certain topics and experience related to those topics; of being integrating as well as analyzing in the approach to the subject matter and to theory and practice, and of emphasizing learning through participation. It has the greatest flexibility in terms of adaptation to the needs of individuals and to the experiences encountered in the course of the programme, and self-evaluation is often a key concept.

It is often criticized as being academically unacceptable, especially if the practical aspects appear or actually become more important than the reflective, or if they appear too "political" and thus threaten the treasured neutrality of the university, or if it appears to be attractive basically because it is seen as a "soft option" or attracts particularly "radical" students, in such cases the student often being perceived as spending too much time on the programme. It threatens the traditional structures of higher education, the extent of the threat depending on the amount of flexibility and innovation generally going on in the institution, and is also often seen as a threat to individual disciplines and to standards.

Its greatest limitation, however, is that the personal and participatory nature of staff-student relations required and the need for suitable practical experiences to be obtained, as well as the generally greater inflexibility of assessment requirements for post-graduate degrees, limits the number of participants to a relatively small group of undergraduates in most cases. This is not inherent, if more such programmes become available instead of a very small group being grudgingly allowed to try this apparently "dangerous" experiment.

MODEL VII: MANPOWER TRAINING

Most approaches have a manpower training aspect, but this is the overt aim of programmes in this model. The main advantage of these programmes lies in the fact that certain basic experience has already been obtained and the goal of the programme is to increase and build onto this. The value of the programme depends on its duration, the arrangement for supervision of individual work and the staff-student contact involved, and the extent to which it is more than a reward for faithful service, with little heed to individual needs or the relationship of the programme to prior or subsequent experience. The extent to which transfer-of-training is also built into the programme may also be a critical factor in determining its value not only to the student but to the place where he is employed. Because such programmes are mainly short and intense, there may be less flexibility in teaching methods, in the account which is taken of the individual's personal position including, in the case of foreign students, adjustment to the new environment, and also in the forms of assessment. 2/

1/ Ezer, Melvin. The Waianae Project, College of Education, University of Hawaii, unpublished report.

2/ For good discussions of the whole question of overseas training, see Gollin, A.E. Education for National Development, New York, NY, Praeger, 1966; Keats, D. Back in Asia, ANU Press, 1969.

Because of the large number of such courses and their enshrining in aid or foreign policy, many evaluations have been attempted. These vary in emphasis from an assessment of skills or knowledge acquired, to evaluations from colleagues and from the students themselves at different intervals after the experience. It is agreed that courses which give students some orientation before coming abroad or immediately upon arrival, which are flexible enough to cater for individual backgrounds and needs, which provide some certification, which are predominantly for mature individuals with established careers, which last for at least six months, and which include an opportunity for consideration of transfer-of-training are most valuable to individuals and to their employers. From the development education viewpoint, an opportunity to share with colleagues in the host country and for follow-up contact on completion of the course,will enhance the value of such programmes for all concerned.

MODEL VIII : THE INTERNATIONALIZED INSTITUTION

The main advantage of this approach is in the incentive for a wide consideration of development issues throughout the entire range of offerings of the institution, for a maximum outreach in terms of students' numbers, for the opportunities for teamwork and contact between disciplines, for the pool of staff with relevant experience and for the likelihood that funds will be more readily available especially for fieldwork. This has disadvantages in that money may act as a spurious incentive, and a level of complacency may also become apparent. On the whole, such an approach will also be limited by the limitations of individual programmes carried out under the general umbrella of stimulating interest in international dimensions to any particular topic.

Existing evaluations tend to emphasize numbers of staff and students, and quantitative changes in time. 1/ The work of evaluating more qualitative aspects would be enormous.

MODEL IX : THE RESEARCH INSTITUTE

Like the internationalized institution, this provides special incentives including research funds and a particular intellectual environment. This may not necessarily include, however, effective (or affective) contact between individuals and disciplines, and may provide a "retreat" for those who dislike teaching or who wish, with all the facilities and funds available, to pursue their own career as uninterrupted as possible by distractions. Insofar as formal teaching is rarely built into these institutions, opportunities which are created are usually informal, flexible and may be wide-ranging in scope, especially as "brainstorm" or interdisciplinary approaches are common. They may also be narrow and highly theoretical, or totally divorced from reality.

The extent to which research is tied to availability of funds and the "strings" attached to grants, is a critical factor in such institutes.

Thus, at best they provide a highly stimulating, diverse and flexible opportunity for a highly selected élite to pursue individual or group interests, relatively free from outside constraints, with short-term appointments maximizing both contacts and the numbers able to participate. They may be little more than highly élite ivory towers, or serve narrowly sectional interests.

1/ See, e.g. Hayden, Rose: Report on Undergraduate International Studies at Michigan State University, Latin American Studies Center, 1971, and Hayden, Rose: Technical Assistance Project Impact on Michigan State University Academic Programs, Report to the Dean of International Programs, 1972.

MODEL X: COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

The advantages of these programmes include the greater numbers of people who may be reached, although it could be argued that they select themselves because they are already motivated and interested in the topics, the opportunity for real university contact with at least some sections of the community, and greater flexibility in both content and approach. If the leaders are primarily concerned with financial rewards, or teach in a way which does not encourage real participation, there is a danger of "watered down" and even ill-prepared courses, and of an attitude of arrogance on the part of the teachers, often reinforcing feelings of inferiority amongst participants which is likely to be increased if they have to come onto campus for the programme.

There is evidence of a new concern about adult/continuing education. This brings a danger that it might become, too, merely a certification programme, as an "alternative" to more traditional means, but this is not necessarily a disadvantage unless there is an associated attitude that this is the second-class way to pursue interests and studies. They do offer to meet a genuine need for further learning, in the widest and most innovative and flexible manner, and to become a real learning experience for teachers as well as students.

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In general, from the foregoing comments, it should be apparent that there is a development education element in all these models. This is perhaps weakest in Models I, II and VII, and strongest in Models V, VI and X. Models VIII and IX are perhaps best suited to the more research-oriented role of the university, in providing places where research for other interest groups may be carried out, and where foreign students congregate in the largest numbers. Model VI is clearly the most valuable in terms of principles of development education for students working towards a degree or diploma, and when independent staff research is taken into account, has the greatest possibility for furthering development education if the barriers to it can be overcome.

Foreign students are to be found in almost all types of programme, with the exception of Model X and possibly V, and in some cases courses will be adapted not only to meet their specific training needs, but to encourage them to participate in such a way that their experience is shared with local students and real personal dialogue is possible. This may be mere tokenism, with an emphasis on "international week" and on cultural events at which the local people are merely spectators, and the constraints on the overseas students (family and governmental pressures to succeed, lack of orientation to the new environment including educational differences, fear of reprisal if they speak out or participate too actively in local affairs, inadequate welfare facilities, etc.) may decrease their ability to participate and, if some special attention is not given to the adaptation of their training to home conditions, decrease the value of the course. While some social or cultural benefits to the "hosts" or the gaining of foreign qualifications by the "guests" may be the highest expectation from such programmes, this may be cancelled if it becomes a mere exercise in numbers and empty diplomacy.

Another aspect which requires consideration in an overall evaluation is the institution/community relationship. This has a number of facets:

i) Where the community is involved as the object of study, practical work or action programmes. The value of this will depend on the extent to which this participation is genuine and not mere toleration in which students and staff are rather reluctantly tolerated and the community regarded as little more than a laboratory.

ii) The extent to which courses which are open to the community are a response to felt needs and again emphasize participation and dialogue.

iii) The extent to which community organizations and agencies, including voluntary agencies, which are working in similar fields, are included in programmes on a partnership basis.

Another aspect of this relates to the whole area of non-formal groups, both on and off campus. These are many and diverse, with students, staff and students, students and community groups, staff and community groups, and occasionally staff, students and community groups, working together on programmes of common interest and concern, both intellectual and practical. In many instances, the existence of informal groups is an indictment of the formal system, since they have come into being because of a perceived need which is expected from, but not met by, the system. In others, they take as the starting point some formal course or aspect of a programme, looking at particular aspects which are not dealt with in class or looking at them from different points of view. This process may also work in reverse, and students may take a particular course because they have become interested in the subject through membership in a non-formal group, either on or off campus. Maximum individual learning is likely to take place when there is some acknowledgement in formal courses of the existence of such groups, or where practical work can in some way be linked to extra-curricular activity. The main advantage is in providing opportunities for some acquaintance with issues and activities even though a student is not formally engaged in a relevant course of study, and in the contribution in terms of insights and experience which staff and students can bring to non-campus groups and also gain from them.

A list of those programmes included in the survey, classified according to the ten models, appears in Annex III.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The prospects for the furthering of development education at the tertiary level are both encouraging and depressing. On the one hand, despite changes which have occurred, especially in the past seven years, the university in particular stands out amongst educational institutions as a conservative preserver of the status quo. Change has tended to emphasize the job-training aspect of the university, despite a proliferation of other tertiary institutions with this function more explicitly stated. But this, plus the competition for finance, and rising unemployment at all levels of job skill, at least tend to enhance conservatism.

Negative Prospects

It could be predicted that the present economic crisis as it is manifest in the West will increase conservatism, especially through the uncertainty about employment not only for university graduates but, with declining student numbers, for university staff as well. It is just possible that the end-point of this trend may be a return to a much earlier concept of the university. Training and "pure learning" might completely separate, those wanting training going to one type of institution and the university, or some similar new institution, fulfilling a general educational function. It could be predicted, however, that only the financially secure, the romantic or the highly idealistic could afford the luxury of study for its own sake. Certainly it is becoming obvious that the state of the job-market is affecting students' decisions whether or not to go to the university, some more directly professional training institution or straight into employment with on-the-job training, which courses they will undertake if they do decide to study, and which options they will choose within courses. And those courses in fields where unemployment is high or rising, and those which have less obvious career implications, are losing out, unless they are of the more trendy type, such as environmental studies, and even these may not have a certain future.

Other implications of the economic situation for higher education include a decrease in funds available for research which has low priority to the sources of finance, which is already being felt in many countries and in many fields, and for expansion within institutions as well as for the establishment of new ones. In the case of research, this may be indirectly affected by cuts in aid spending, which may also decrease the numbers of officially-sponsored foreign student programmes. Since the model of development education which has been put forward here emphasizes people rather than money, the most serious result for it of the economic situation is rather in the willingness of students to participate in such programmes and the willingness/ability of institutions to provide staff and services for them.

Beyond the economic level, barriers to a more widespread introduction of development education are related to the nature of tertiary institutions. The inherent conservatism, backed by the changing economics of higher education, affect the range of courses offered and innovation, both within disciplines and between them, in terms of content, teaching methods and assessment. Universities have been slowest, on the whole, to recognize changing boundaries of traditional subjects. Where new courses have been introduced, especially inter- or multi-disciplinary ones, they have tended to be given lower status vis-à-vis the well-established disciplines, with limited scope to attract students by making them electives rather than core courses, minor rather than major sequences, imposing assessment requirements which decrease the flexibility in subject-matter and approaches to it, and restricting them to short-term "experiments" with an uncertain future, including the appointment of junior staff with short-term contracts to run them.

Such considerations have provoked the comment that the university in particular is not the place where development education can be usefully promoted, since it represents the antipathy of many development education principles. In addition, the evidence suggests that many of the attitudes considered critical for development education have already been established in late childhood and the early teen years, and it is too late to establish or change them at the tertiary level, or even that it is not a proper function of education to do so. Against this, it can be argued that when one is dealing with people, it is never too late to try to bring about change (this is the basis for the philosophy of continuing education), and that, since those undertaking higher education will take positions of social responsibility in the future, there is a strong obligation to expose them to as wide a range of experience, intellectual and personal, as possible. While this requires, fundamentally, a change in the whole structure and function of higher education, which in turn implies widespread change in other social institutions, and while it may not be possible to change those courses which are well-established in the traditional mould, it is not impossible to initiate and support new courses and programmes.

Still on a somewhat depressing note, the overall picture of development education in the industrialized nations shows large gaps and weaknesses. The effort is very uneven, varying from country to country, and institution to institution. While the survey did not enable accurate statistics to be gathered, the impression is one of relatively small numbers of staff and students engaged in any way in formal development educational processes. Undergraduate programmes, since they are mostly later-year options, and mostly in the humanities and social sciences, reach at most 10% of the student population at a very optimistic guess. While the range and diversity is greater at the graduate level, most programmes still talk of less than fifty students, and this represents a small percentage of that already highly-selected population. Since undergraduate courses feed into graduate ones, and since only a small number of undergraduates go on to higher degrees, the general lack of development education even as an option at the undergraduate level, is deplorable. Compulsory courses have many disadvantages, but general ones, and ones in the development education area, which may be pursued throughout the first degree or diploma, are both possible and desirable. The lack of concern and action to remedy this enormous gap is serious - it is almost as if most people have looked at the undergraduate situation and put it in the "too hard" file!

Other gaps deal more specifically with individual subjects or programmes. Ecology and environmental studies, women's studies, peace-conflict studies, interdisciplinary studies, population studies, even Third World studies, are admittedly new, but the whole aura of radicalism and unrespectability surrounding those institutions which have introduced them and the pseudo-trendy image which they have in many eyes, may put off many prospective students and also other institutions which may be contemplating their introduction. Migrant studies are more respectable, no doubt reflecting the social visibility of the migrant or guest worker in most industrialized countries, and the same applies to studies of indigenous minorities and race relations. No-one questions language studies and in fact, given a broader interpretation of these beyond simple speaking skills, they provide a good basis for inter-cultural understanding, but the scope of these is still very limited to the European ones, except for a small number of institutions. In addition, new, basically multi-disciplinary studies, in a very large proportion of courses there is no opportunity to consider those aspects of the subject which relate to development issues. And even where this is possible, offerings are only a small part of regular courses and are predominantly unidisciplinary.

Yet other gaps are found in the relation between courses of study and other student concerns, especially in the community and NGO field. Requirements of study, which are becoming increasingly strict with various factors leading to greater penalization for failure, as well as some forms of continuous assessment which increase pressure at the end, militate against active student involvement in extra-curricular activities. And yet, for many students, such activities have formerly provided an opportunity to maximize their time of study (which often implied reduced general social responsibility) for personal development. High failure and drop-out rates, especially when personal breakdown or disenchantment with higher education are the main reasons, all attest to, or contribute to, the narrowing of the university experience.

Another frequently overlooked gap is the general lack of consultation with developing countries. This is apparent in many aid and research programmes even though their objective is a practical one, where an inter-governmental agreement is considered a sufficient justification for undertaking the work. But even more deeply, the views of developing countries on the role and content of development education in industrialized countries, the participation at the leadership level of people from developing countries when their country and field of expertise is the object of study, and a serious consideration of development education models in developing countries, are rarely built into programmes. Since the aim of development education is increased understanding and communication, this omission is a critical one.

It was stated in discussing development education generally, that one of the problems is that the way in which the subject matter is presented does not make sense. This is unfortunately apparent at the university level, both through the general lack of inter-disciplinary approaches, and through the over-emphasis on intellectual as opposed to emotional sense. This in turn implies a lack of a philosophy of higher education which places the central emphasis on the student as an individual who comes from, lives in and will most probably be employed by, society. The student, and to some extent the staff member, is considered rather as an object, to be acted on in certain narrowly-defined ways or to perform certain restricted functions, and their "other being", the social/personal, is of concern only insofar as it impedes the operations of the institution. Even where the social role of the institution is considered, it is most often done so in terms of jobs performed or products released to society, rather than a dialogue and process of interaction. Concepts such as "commitment" (both in the sense of a community of committed scholars which transcends national, ideological, ethnic, religious and sexual barriers, and in the wider community of which the university is a part) and "service" are mostly paid lipservice only or considered irrelevant to the main purpose of the university.

Positive Prospects

On the other hand, there are indications that changes which are conducive to development education are taking place. To some extent, these reflect the spirit of the times. Internationalism, problems of global dimensions, dissatisfaction and frustration at every level, are bandied around by the media, and other interest-groups, but beyond this there is a growing concern about the state of the world. The very fact that development education is now considered relevant and even important in industrialized countries, is an indication of a certain climate of opinion regarding the nature of problems which were once considered of far more restricted range, and the need to seek solutions at every level, and on a global scale, has also become obvious. These concerns are particularly vivid for the young, and they are not necessarily left behind when they enter upon higher education. Youth is a time of seeking, of attempting to find one's own identity and a sense of commitment, and the frustration of students with the lack of opportunity for exploring both is becoming more urgent, and more likely to be translated into action. The existence of outside and informal groups is one solution, but students are becoming more and more vocal in relationship to their desire to be allowed to undertake studies which are relevant to their needs, and their dissatisfaction, not only with society but with many aspects of their place of study, is also evident.

Students thus constitute an important agent for change. Others, with whom they may be aligned, or in competition, include:

i) Staff members, especially but by no means exclusively, young ones, whose student days are still relatively vivid. While their relative lack of seniority and even insecurity of tenure may inhibit them from taking action at a formal and official level, they are most likely to seek and to make opportunities to exploit any flexibility which exists within the institution in order to introduce new courses and new methods. Effective staff/student contact and action has in some cases led to the introduction and support of new courses, such as the Third World Centre at Nijmegen.

ii) Community pressure groups, especially non-governmental organizations, may include staff and students, who see change at the university as an important vehicle for social change. Two Australian examples, the Australian Council for Overseas Aid which has a sub-committee working for the establishment of some form of Institute for Development Studies, and the Women's Movement for International Peace and Freedom, which is pushing for the establishment of a Chair of Irenology at the new university in Western Australia, may be cited. There are many such groups in the USA, one of special relevance being the International Education Project. In some cases, ethnic groups have provided funds for, and the necessary enabling pressure, to implement special language courses and socio-cultural studies, such as the Melbourne Greek community which has provided for a Chair of Modern Greek at Melbourne University.

iii) Developing countries. Pressures may be exerted from this source directly, for example the provision of money for certain programmes of teaching or research, or indirectly, through international diplomacy, which may lead governments of industrialized countries to press for, and/or fund, special studies into the ramifications of this, especially in the aid and trade fields, and may also lead to exclusion of certain types of fieldwork and research opportunities which may in turn re-orient research workers to local problems. This may be, in fact, an important force in bringing national problems and the links between developed and developing countries into sharper focus.

iv) Government and business generally, both through the programmes financed and the employment opportunities created for people with certain sorts of qualifications or experience.

v) International agencies, through pressure, most often moral, on member governments and through the provision of funds for certain kinds of educational activities.

vi) Other international agencies, through the examples set by members and the opportunities provided for contact between people from different countries, which may stimulate and encourage new initiatives and provide an important communication channel and supporting community. The recent Society for International Development conference for heads of institutes for training and research in economic and social development, supported by the OECD, is an example, and the biennial symposia of World University Service, which have the added advantage of including delegates from both developed and developing countries, is another. 1/

1/ See, e.g. symposium reports on the following: "The International Role of the University", 1968; "The Crisis in Development", 1972; "The Altered Functions of Science and Education", 1974.

There is also a growing swell for change in education itself. So far, this has been most acutely felt at the school level, but there are indications that this is also reaching beyond that level. Such factors as changing assessment policies, more flexible entrance requirements, some recognition of the value of non-study experience, either in the form of deferred entry in order to gain work experience, deferment during a course and different requirements for those with considerable work experience, and even a recognition that university teachers may benefit from some form of teacher-training, as well as a diversification of teaching methods, are gradually appearing on the university scene. More commonly they are found in teacher-training institutions, which in many instances are far more innovative than universities. There may be some benefit to other faculties when teacher training is included in universities. Colleges of advanced education, being free of certain academic traditions, are also more frequently open to experiment and diversification. Concentration on universities alone is undesirable.

Yet another factor is the growing number of people in educational institutions with experience in a wide range of development situations. This varies from exchange scholars, study tours, research, actual work and voluntary experience. In some instances, an added factor is the gradual inclusion of first-generation migrants and of indigenous minority groups on campus. Their very presence brings an opportunity for informal contacts and the increasing of awareness, and this may also be a factor in changing formal programmes.

The 1970s will probably become known as the "decade of alternatives". Not only has the phrase "alternative lifestyle" come into popular usage, although not practice, but a whole range of alternative groups, structures, even institutions continue to mushroom. These are often initiated by student dropouts, or may even exist on campus in such forms as informal alternative studies or free universities which are open to the community but rely heavily on university personnel. This movement is significant in providing opportunities for study and experience which are not found in formal studies, and is to be encouraged. However, their existence may decrease pressure for institutional change, since the need is at least being met somewhere, and alternatives outside the system can be easily bypassed by the system. Means should be sought to integrate the two in ways which are as free as possible from the danger of altering the important developmental aspects of the alternatives. Alternatives are a "second line of defence", as it were, when attempts to change the main institutions fail.

Recommendations

The preceding survey has attempted to examine critically the whole field of development education at the post-secondary level, to look at a range of sample programmes and to evaluate these. Its shortcomings are obvious, especially in the coverage given and in evaluation. Further work is needed to see why particular approaches have been adopted, and to interview individual participants over a period of time to determine the effects that the programmes have had on them.

Based on the survey, and bearing in mind these limitations, the following recommendations are made for international agencies wishing to initiate action to strengthen and increase development education efforts at this level. These recommendations are grouped into two parts, the first dealing at the general level and including some cautions about certain types of activity, and the second dealing with more specific proposals.

I. General Recommendations

1. An international agency has strengths and weaknesses in acting to promote development action at the university level. The strengths lie in the moral and even political force which an international agency can bring to bear on individual governments, which may be backed up by financial incentives in the form of funds for special projects. A further strength is the representativeness and coverage of an international agency and the overview which it can bring to the subject. The weaknesses stem from these two factors - the effectiveness of pressure depends on the role that government plays in changing higher education, especially at the level of course content and teaching methods, and the easy way out which may be taken by establishing a case that the situation in a particular country is in some way different and therefore excepted from implementing general recommendations, even though assent may be given to them in principle. This should be borne in mind in proposing courses of action to be taken by agencies.

2. A common approach at the international agency level is to organize meetings of experts, establish a special publication and concentrate efforts on the so-called makers of public opinion. This approach is valid, but it has limitations. Experts and senior academic and administrative personnel cannot be overlooked, but they are often strong on advice and short in action. It becomes too cosy for such people, who frequently get together in a variety of guises, to chat and to write weighty reports. There is room for greater consultation at this level, but it may be more effective to infiltrate other councils and meetings where such people congregate rather than to concentrate on them alone, in special situations. It is the actual participants and potential participants, the junior members of staff with bright ideas, the students and those for and about whom development education is designed, who are often neglected, and who need to get together for communication and support. They are the people who actually participate or who are unable to participate, and their role in bringing about changes conducive to more widespread acceptance and practice of development education is vital.

3. It is becoming more common to abstract from the school to the post-secondary level in approaches to development education. While schools cannot be ignored, since they produce the tertiary students and since continuity is desirable in educational experience, but needs and methods of approach differ at the tertiary level. And yet, a frequent response to development education needs has been the provision of model curricula or units of study. University teachers may be short on ideas for courses, and opportunities to become acquainted with details of other colleagues' approaches are necessary, but even at the school level the model curriculum has a number of limitations, and is often very difficult to apply outside the cultural context, in itself often very limited, for which it was designed.

4. Because of their commitment to aid programmes, international agencies have tended to concentrate their attention at the tertiary level on programmes which are directly related to aid. These include manpower training, the fielding of experts, institutional links and research into specific problems. These are important and valid functions and the harnessing of university resources for development includes these activities. But very few individuals are actually involved. Recognition is growing of the need to create an awareness of development amongst all people, and this has so far been reflected in agency education programmes about their work, and at the community level, and even in the schools. But it is time that agency attention was focussed on development education, in and for itself, at the tertiary level. For this to take place, especially for commitment of funds and personnel resources for the task, member governments must also be pursuaded of the importance of the need, and active steps should be undertaken to enable this to take place.

5. A general principle in approach is to find and encourage worthwhile initiatives in this field, and to provide opportunities where they do not exist. The pilot project for help to self-help model is a useful one.

II. Specific Recommendations

1. It has already been pointed out that general undergraduate courses are most lacking in development education elements. This should be given high priority, in establishing what is going on and ways to increase the effort. In order to do this, contact should be made with participants in existing programmes, so as to develop a practical strategy to change this situation, and effective contacts need to be established in institutions and governments to enable this to take place.

2. Teachers participating in development programmes may have a wide range of professional contacts, but emphasis needs to be given to ways of maximizing the communication of their experience in their teaching activities. Workshops are needed for those who have a common research experience, where ways of integrating the experience into teaching programmes could be studied. This may help to bridge the gap between research and teaching.

3. Because of the general lack of teacher-training for post-secondary teachers, the field is wide open to provide opportunities for this. Acquaintance with new teaching methods and contact with people practising them, through conferences, workshops and perhaps a journal, would stimulate this process. University staff are often particularly resistant to criticism of their teaching, although the general ferment in higher education is providing an atmosphere where this can become "respectable". An international agency may be of greatest assistance in providing suggestions, funds and even personnel for those professional tertiary teacher organizations which bring together teachers to consider common problems.

4. Much has been made in this report of the concepts of "participation" and "learning by experience". This has generally been used in the context of university programmes. It has also important applications at the teacher level. They, too, are developing individuals, and opportunities for personal encounter, especially with people in those sections of the community at home and abroad, that are frequently the object of study and teaching, need to be provided for tertiary teachers. They may also need to be helped and encouraged to meet students, to hear their reactions to, and suggestions for programmes. While this task is enormous, an international agency could establish pilot projects based on various types of experience - the well-prepared study tour where follow-up of the experience is included, community encounters, and staff/student liaison or action groups could be included in such projects.

5. Another area of neglect is professional organizations. Since development education and many of the current issues are relatively new arrivals, many university trained people are as ignorant as the community at large. The university often has a role to play in providing in-service training for these professional groups, and action by an agency at the international or regional level, to stimulate this and to include development issues on the agendas of their programmes, could be most effective. Dialogue with these associations, to establish what changes they would like to see in universities' programmes in the light of their professional needs, as well as development education possibilities, could also be initiated by an international agency. The reverse process, that of discussing those professional requirements which are barriers to development education, such as certain sorts of practical experience or narrow specialization, could also be considered with these organizations.

6. Voluntary agencies and informal groups often have significant development education programmes. Such approaches as learner resource centres, workshops and community action programmes exist, often in glorious isolation from the campus on their doorstep. While it may be doubtful for an international agency to provide the medium for contact with local educational institutions, help can be provided in this effort. "Seed" funds to establish or encourage initiatives in these fields, and opportunities for contact and communication between agencies in the form of regional

workshops, could provide large returns for a small investment. Nor should the possibility be ignored that pilot programmes, perhaps in the form of a newsletter (expansion of the Development Education Exchange Service of Action for Development would be an important step in this direction), and conferences or workshops bringing together informal and formal groups, could provide a valuable stimulus to increase cooperation between these groups and to strengthen their various efforts.

Thus, international agencies have an obligation to engage in development education if they are to be true to their international function. They need to look at their own programmes and to increase contact between agencies and personnel, in order to set an example to others. While it is often said that their effectiveness is circumscribed because they are even one step further removed from the man-in-the-street (and often even further from the woman-in-the-home), than national bureaucracies, institutions and agencies, opportunities do exist for contact and communication through every level of society, local and national as well as international. In the interests of development education, these opportunities need to be sought actively and even created where they do not exist.

The challenge is not to provide more funds, or not that only, but to respond to needs and initiatives with foresight, imagination, courage and commitment.

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ANNEX I

LIST OF INSTITUTES AND ORGANIZATIONS VISITED AND/OR CONTACTED DURING THE SURVEY

I. AUSTRALIA

Action for Development/Australian FFHC - Ideas Centre, Sydney
Action for World Development, Brickfield Hill, NSW
Asian Bureau Australia, Parkville, Victoria
Australian Council for Overseas Aid, Canberra
Australian Development Assistance Agency, Canberra
Australian National University - Research School of Pacific Studies, Canberra
Canberra College of Advanced Education - School of Education, Canberra
Community Aid Abroad, Fitzroy, Victoria
La Trobe University, Bundoora, Victoria
Monash University - Centre for Southeast-Asian Studies, Clayton, Victoria
University of Melbourne - Centre for Environmental Studies, Parkville, Victoria
University of NSW - Department of General Studies, Canberra

II. CANADA

Canadian Bureau for International Education, Ottawa
Canadian Council for International Cooperation/CCIC, Ottawa
Canadian International Development Agency/CIDA, Ottawa
Canadian University Service Overseas/CUSO, Ottawa
Carleton University - School for International Affairs, Ottawa
Cross-Cultural Communications Centre, Toronto
Development Education Centre, Toronto
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education - Department of History and Philosophy of Education, Toronto
Ottawa Learner Resource Centre, Ottawa
Service Universitaire Canadien Outre-Mer/SUCO (Canadian University Service Overseas), Montreal
St. Francis Xavier University - Coady Institute, Antigonish
St. Mary's University - International Education Centre, Halifax
Université Laval - Faculté des Sciences Sociales, Quebec
University of Ottawa - Institute for International Cooperation
World Development Education, Toronto
World University Service of Canada, Ottawa
York University - Faculty of Arts, Downsview, Ontario

* * *

Tom Kear, Downsview, Ontario
Richard Stuart, Toronto, Ontario

III. DENMARK

Danchurchaid, Copenhagen
DANIDA, Copenhagen
Danish World Population Year Campaign, Copenhagen
Folkeuniversitetet Copenhagen
Institute for Development Research, Copenhagen
International Forum, Copenhagen
World University Service - Danish National Committee, Copenhagen

IV. FRANCE

Comité Jeunes contre la Faim (Youth Against Hunger) - Paris
Institut d'Etude du Développement Economique et Social/IEDES
(Institute of Economic and Social Development Studies) - University of Paris I
Institut international de Recherche et de Formation: Education et Développement/ IRFED (International Institute of Research and Training in Education and Development) - Paris
Ministère de l'Education nationale (Ministry of Education) - Paris
World University Service, French National Committee - Paris

V. FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Bundesministerium für Wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit
(Ministry for Economic Cooperation) - Bonn
Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik
(Institute for Development Policy) - Berlin
Deutsches Institut für Internationale Pädagogische Forschung
(Institute for International Educational Research) - Frankfurt
Deutsche Stiftung für Entwicklungsländer
(German Foundation for Developing Countries) - Bonn
Epd - Redaktion Entwicklungspolitik
(Protestant Press Service: Editorial Development Policy) - Frankfurt
Evangelische Zentralstelle für Entwicklungshilfe
(Protestant Office for Development Aid) - Bonn
Institut für Entwicklungspolitik und Entwicklungsforschung, Universität Bochum
(Institute for Development Policy and Research) - Bochum University
Institut für Sozialökonomie der Agrarentwicklung der Technischen Universität
(Social and Economic Institute for Agricultural Development of the Technical University) - Berlin
Rheinisch-Westfälische Technische Hochschule, Forschungsinstitut für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
(Rhine-Westphalian Technical College, Research Institute for International Cooperation) - Aachen
Technische Hochschule (Institute of Technology) - Stuttgart
Unesco Institute for Education - Hamburg
World University Service, German Committee - Bonn

VI. GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

Karl-Marx Universität - Leipzig

VII. THE NETHERLANDS

Catholic University of Tilburg - Development Research Institute
Leiden University - Institute for International Studies
Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Cooperation - The Hague
School en Wereld - Santpoort
University of Amsterdam
University of Grogigen - Polemological Institute
University of Nijmegen - Third World Centre
World University Service, Netherlands Committee - Amsterdam

VIII. POLAND

Studium Afrykanistyczne UW, Warsaw

IX. SWEDEN

Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, Uppsala
"Det Nödvändiga Seminar", Ulfborg
Malmö College of Education
Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, Uppsala
Stockholm University - Institute of Education
Swedish International Development Authority/SIDA, Stockholm
Swedish National Board of Education, Stockholm
University of Uppsala - Department of Peace and Conflict Studies

X. SWITZERLAND

Institute of Cultural Action/IDAC, Geneva
Institut d'Etudes du Développement (Institute of Development Studies), Geneva
Université de Genève - Département de Pédagogie

XI. UNITED KINGDOM

British Council of Churches - Community and Race Relations Unit, London
Intermediate Technology Development Group, London
One World Trust - World Studies Project, London
Open University, Milton Keynes
OXFAM, Oxford
Student Christian Movement of Great Britain and Northern Ireland - Third World Troubadours, London
University of East Anglia, Norwich
University of Sussex - Institute of Development Studies, Brighton
Voluntary Committee on Overseas Aid and Development/VCOAD, London
World University Service, UK Committee - London

XII. UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, Washington
American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Development Assistance Overseas, New York
American Council on Education - International Education Project, Washington
American FFH Foundation/Action for Development, Washington
American Institute for Foreign Study, Greenwich
Center for Concern, Washington
Center for War/Peace Studies, New York
Columbia University - International Studies, Teachers' College, New York
Department of State/Agency for International Development, Washington
Florida State University - College of Education, Tallahassee
Harvard Educational Review, Cambridge
Harvard School of Education - Center for Studies in Education and Development, Cambridge
Institute for World Order, New York
International Council for Educational Development, New York
Management Institute for National Development, New York
Michigan State University
  - School of Education
  - International Studies Center
  - Mid-West Consortium of Universities for International Assistance
  - Center for International Affairs
National Catholic Education Association, Washington
National Council for the Social Studies, Washington
New World Resource Center, Chicago
Overseas Development Council, Washington

Pacific Studies Center, East Palo, California
Public Education Association, New York
Quaker Office at the United Nations, New York
Society for International Development, Washington
Stanford University - International Development Center, California
Syracuse University - Center for Development Education
University of California
 - School of Education, Berkeley
 - Programme in Comparative Culture, Irvine
University of Chicago
University of Colorado - Institute for Behavioural Studies, Boulder
University of Connecticut - World Education Project, School of Education, Storrs
University of Dallas - Graduate School of Management, Irving
University of Denver - Center for Teaching International Relations
University of Hawaii, Honolulu
University of Indiana, Bloomington
 - School of Education
 - Social Studies Development Center
University of Massachusetts - Center for International Education, Amherst
University of Pittsburgh - School of Education
US Committee for the UN University, New York
US Office of Health, Education and Welfare - Division of International Education, Washington
World Neighbours Project, US Committee, New York
World University Service, US Committee, New York
Youth for Understanding, Ann Arbor

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XIII. INTERNATIONAL

Action for Development - FAO, Rome
OECD Development Centre, Paris
UNESCO - Youth Division, Paris
UN/OPI - Centre for Economic and Social Information/CESI, New York
WHO - European Regional Office, Copenhagen
World Federation of Teachers Unions/WFTU, Prague
World University Service/WUS, Geneva

OUTLINE OF PROGRAMMES INCLUDED IN THE SURVEY

1. U.S.A.

Educational Foundations, University of Hawaii

a) The Waianae Project

This involves a group of fifty volunteer graduate students and seniors in a community project in a low socio-economic area of Honolulu. The students live in for a year, gaining a full year's credit for the work. They work full-time in the schools and social agencies. Led, directed and guided by faculty, two faculty members actually live in with the students for as much time as possible and are assigned full-time to the project. Their house becomes a focal point for informal student meetings, and the main teaching is through seminars, ad hoc discussion groups and problem-oriented task forces.

The students are selected on the basis of their education and experience and approximately one-third of them are from low income families in the area. They are briefed on campus first, and local agencies are included in this briefing; one of the specific preparatory exercises is a course in the teaching of reading and the diagnosis of reading problems. In some cases, classes are reorganized to make full use of the students' special skills, and in addition an alternative school was set up by them for drop-outs, and formal and informal counselling.

It is funded by a federal agency, ACTION (University Year for ACTION) and the students receive an allowance. Begun in 1972, in 1974 it was extended to three other geographical areas and it is to include other departments of the university, going beyond teaching as the main skill involved.

Evaluation is on the basis of contributions to the learning activities of the community and performance with children. The whole project has been evaluated in terms of changes in client behaviour.

b) The Bi-lingual Education Task Force

This is part of the University of Hawaii-American Samoa Contract and was instituted in 1971. Backed by a task force group at the university, one member was sent to American Samoa as a consultant to the Department of Education in American Samoa, to determine whether the current ratio in the use of the two languages, English and Samoan, was satisfactory. A period of two weeks was spent in Samoa, interviewing and visiting, and a report was then submitted to the group back at the University, for further action.

Stanford University School of Education, International Development Education Committee (SIDEC)

This centre has two main programmes in the field of development education:

a) Fellowship Program in Development Education

This is a master's degree programme for officials and educators in developing countries. Of one year's duration, it is intended to improve the effectiveness of South-east Asians qualified to deal with the problems of educational planning and decision-making in their respective countries. A similar programme exists for participants from Latin America. The programme is built around an interdisciplinary core course and this is mainly in the field of systems analysis and its application to educational problems. The rest of the time is devoted to individual programmes, including tutorials, to meet individuals' interests and professional needs.

The initial grant to establish the programme was from the Ford Foundation. Now, the university provides some funds and the students are expected to provide the rest, mostly from their home governments.

The Latin American Programme is into its fifth year, and it is intended that graduates will go back home and start similar programmes themselves with support from Stanford Faculty members, e.g. a course will start in Mexico in 1976. The Southeast Asian programme is into its fourth year.

b) Stanford International Development Education Committee

This is a more general programme at both Master's and Doctoral levels. It is interdisciplinary, with six core staff members and others who work part-time in the programme but who are attached to other departments. It began in 1965. The purpose is to initiate and support research into the role of education in the processes of social, economic and political development.

Student numbers are small, with 10 - 12 being admitted each year to the doctoral programme. Experience directly relevant to the process of education for development is expected from these candidates, and the course lasts 3 - 4 years. Fieldwork is included in most cases although it is not a formal requirement. Two sequences, a major and a minor, have to be undertaken - courses may be taken outside the SIDEC programme in either sequence to deepen and broaden the student's competence.

Funding has been mainly from the Ford Foundation, with some money for faculty consultancy work from the IBRD and, until recently, the U.S. Office of Education. The Committee is currently trying to broaden its financial base.

School of Education, University of California, Berkeley

This is typical of the offerings in many Colleges of Education. It is concerned with post-graduate degrees, including ones which work towards a teaching credential which involves practical teaching under supervision during the course. A number of specialized programmes exist within the college, at both master's and doctoral level, those of most interest to development education being Educational Policy Planning, and Attitudes and Attitude Change. Both of these are primarily oriented to the American situation, with reference to other countries as well, although they could not be called comparative courses.

Center for Teaching of International Relations, University of Denver

This is mainly an in-service programme for teaching. Commenced in 1969, its outreach was to fourteen states, but due to lack of funds this has been reduced to three, with a high concentration of effort in the Denver area. The main thrust of the programme is to work with groups of teachers in three to five-day workshops, attempting to up-grade the teaching of international relationships in the schools. At first it was mainly for high school teachers, but recognizing that many critical attitudes were formed much earlier, teachers in the earlier grades are now included.

In addition to the workshops, which are now run on a consultancy basis, the initiative coming from elsewhere, materials are being developed for use in the schools, including tape-slide sets, and the emphasis is on participatory learning, with use of games, role-playing and so on. Leaders are identified amongst teacher participants to contact other teachers in the area, and there is follow-up of those who have attended workshops. There is evaluation built into the programme, with participants being asked to evaluate each workshop (open-ended), the use of the semantic differential test to assess the organization of the workshop and the quality of materials demonstrated in terms of their suitability for classroom use, as well as an overall evaluation of the programme in terms of its visibility to teachers, its concerns and its services. It is hoped to go beyond this in 1975 with an assessment of the teaching of social science in the state of Colorado.

The programme consists mostly of the director, his secretary/administrative assistant, and a graduate research assistant. It was initially funded by the US Office of Education under the Education Profession Development Act (1969: US$ 230.000; 1970: $ 90.000; 1971: $ 75.000; 1972 - National Endowment for the Humanities matching grant of $ 90.000 over three years). There has been a recent change: the Center for War/Peace Studies in New York had been assisting with finance and there is close co-operation between the two centres. This continues, and the School of Education has been brought into a joint policy committee. It is hoped through this to develop options, or a full course, for graduate teachers, with a strong emphasis on curriculum development, and materials for inner city children and slow learners. This should be extended to an undergraduate programme and also to enable doctoral candidates to work in the field.

Michigan State University

It is very difficult to consider this vast campus of over 40,000 students as a whole, but since 1956 this has been international in outlook. The directive for this came from the university president, and the process "snowballed". The three main dimensions of this are a world outlook in the separate disciplines, a series of conferences on international themes, and the attraction of money through action, especially money from the Ford Foundation. To quote from an internal report, "The growth of international and comparative studies has been both moderate and steady in the past two decades. Factors contributing to the development of an international dimension in the curriculum include a revision of the basic Social Science and Humanities courses within the University College - a revision which was, in part, facilitated by a Ford Foundation grant for undergraduate education; the establishment of the area centres (African, Asian, Canadian-American, Latin American, Russian and East European); the creation of a multi-disciplinary major in the College of Social Science; and the establishment of interdisciplinary courses dealing with world areas and problems associated with development. There has also been an increased 'internationalization' of the faculty whose expanded overseas experiences in both research and teaching sometimes provide rich and varied insights which are frequently incorporated into already existing courses or provide an impetus for the creation of additional courses of an innovative nature ... an undergraduate student at this university has considerable course and programme options in the area of international or comparative studies should he decide to pursue these." 1/

Numerically, the number of "international" courses rose to 789 in 1971, out of a possible total of 4143 courses offered, and a similar proportion of students was enrolled for them - 25%. Foreign students rose to 1200, mostly at the graduate level, and foreign faculty members and post-doctoral researchers rose to 200. To facilitate this, there is now an Office of International Programmes, with a Standing Committee, which came into existence in 1966. In addition to administrative staff in this office, there are also foreign student advisors. Another activity is study abroad for MSU students, facilitated by participation of the university in several multi-university international consortia, especially MUCIA. 2/ Similar possibilities for exchange exist for staff.

The emphasis is thus two-fold - on overseas students in training at the university, and on international options for American students, aiming at an increase in understanding and assistance for those who wish to pursue careers in developing countries. Involvement of faculty in technical assistance programmes is a parallel development in the internationalization process.

1/ Hayden, Rose: Report on Undergraduate International Studies at Michigan State University, January 1971.

2/ MUCIA = Mid-West Universities Consortium for International Activities.

College of Education, Michigan State University

There are currently 10.000 students in the college, which deals with every aspect of education from the kindergarten to school administration and higher education. There are 800 doctoral students and 55 professors. Half of the students are out in the field at any one time, and one-third to one-half never actually complete their degrees. The average time for those who do complete them is three to five years. Internships and externships are encouraged, and foreign students are advised to undertake their field research principally at home. Three to four percent of the students are from overseas, and 10% of the faculty.

At present, finance comes largely from the State Department, or from grants for foreign students from their home governments. U.S.A.I.D. money is available for field-work. There are financial problems with the present federal administration, with aid and university projects overseas being cut back.

The international aspects are dealt with differently in the different departments of the college. Comparative and International Education, for example, has courses at master's and doctoral levels which include every area of the world, and these are assisted by the Institute for International Studies which is part of the college and which has research facilities on campus and sponsors research and action projects in many parts of the world. The faculty consists of 10 members supplemented by visiting scholars, and a variety of research teams undertake work in different fields - at the moment, a large project on non-formal education, with special emphasis on Latin America and Africa, is being undertaken. This mainly involves staff members, but consideration of non-formal education also plays a role in the graduate courses offered, where the approach is essentially a problem-solving one.

The Department of Agricultural and Vocational Education is primarily concerned with these aspects of U.S. education but includes a course on vocational education in developing countries and also runs a variety of summer session courses for practising teachers. Faculty have experience in developing countries. The same applies to the Department of Counselling and Guidance although here the focus is almost entirely on the U.S. On the other hand, the Department of Higher Education and Administration is more comparative in approach and includes a number of educational administrators, not only from developing countries, amongst its students.

International Education, State University College at Buffalo

An experimental programme of one semester was taught in 1972 in Comparative Education. A total of 24 people took part in the experiment: equal numbers of faculty, overseas students and U.S. students. A prospectus was prepared six months in advance and circulated widely on campus, "advertizing" the course-credit "study group". The aims of this were:

> "This experiment in institutionalizing an inter-cultural exchange of ideas within 'credit' structures is undertaken because it is generally agreed that the flow of ideas remains minimal when it is not structured. The mere presence of foreign students and faculty assures nothing. Those without any interest in the 'foreign' rarely gain a thing from sharing classes with foreign students. Questions which draw forth other cultural perspectives are rarely raised. Reassuring and patient listeners are so rare that foreign students are inhibited instead of being encouraged to formulate unique contributions." 1/

1/ Smart, Reginald: Learning from Other Cultures - In College: Post Mortem on an Experiment, November 1972.

Once selected, the large group met twice to set goals, then three groups were formed, one with predominant interest in Africa, one in Asia, and one in "the future". These groups then met separately, followed by a six-hour "Issues Workshop", smaller group work and a final evaluation session. It was assessed as a vital learning experience but had minimal success in learning from real differences between the members. The reasons for this included lack of time for adequate interpersonal exploration and some unreal expectations on the part of the leader.

International Development Research Center, Indiana University

The research work of this centre is grouped into the following: Development Planning, Theory and Practice; East European Economic Planning and Economic Change; Institutional Development and Modernization; Human Resources and Development. A major aspect of the centre's work is research by faculty and post-doctoral students. No further details could be obtained.

School of Education, University of Pittsburgh

The functions of the School, which was established in 1910, are threefold: the preparation of teachers, educational administrators and other specialized school workers; the extension of the store of knowledge about education and educational problems through faculty and higher degree research, and the provision of leadership and assistance in the improvement of schools and other agencies through consultative services.

Both undergraduate and post-graduate courses are available, including ones leading to accreditation as a teacher. Interdisciplinary work with the School of Social Work lead to certification of Home and School Visitor, and School Social Worker personnel. Foreign students are also admitted to the courses and there is a foreign student advisor.

The school is divided into three main sections: the Division of Teacher Education, the Division of Educational Foundations and the Division of Specialized Professional Education.

A doctoral programme exists in International and Development Education. With ten course "advisors", individual study programmes are pursued as far as possible, including fieldwork and internships. While little new material is included, in the sense that this constitutes a fairly standard course, there is more flexibility than in many such studies, and overseas as well as local students are included.

International Institute, University of Dallas

This took over, in 1972, the functions of the International Management Program which was established in 1966. The main programme within this, the Master of Business Administration, commenced in 1970. The course requires a proficiency in a foreign language, and students may either obtain this in the course of the programme, or come with a first degree in languages. An option to undertake an internship in the country where the student has developed language skills, is offered, and to this end, cooperation has been established with universities or institutes in France, Belgium, Switzerland, Austria, Federal Republic of Germany, Guatemala, Peru and Mexico.

The course is mainly for Americans wishing to work in multinational business enterprises. There is an element of intercultural communication in the course, but this is not its prime aim. The same applies to a similar course run by the institute, a master's programme on world trade.

College of Education, Florida State University

Within the College of Education, a Center for Educational Technology was established with the assistance of a grant from U.S.A.I.D. in 1971. The main objectives of the centre, as re-stated in 1972, include:

"i) to serve as a basic intellectual, informational and technical resource centre through the improvement of its personnel, technical information library, and specialized technical facilities;

ii) to provide educational and training opportunities for a broad spectrum of U.S. and foreign personnel, ranging from complete advanced degree work to short-term training;

iii) to plan and carry out a programme of applied developmental research directed towards integrating present knowledge and closing current knowledge gaps in the field of educational technology;

iv) to establish strong and mutually reinforcing linkages and liaisons with the growing number of national and international institutions, activities, and projects involved in utilizing educational technology in the solution of educational problems in the U.S. and abroad;

v) to develop a variety of service capabilities in educational technology that can be made available to U.S. and foreign institutions and agencies as well as to A.I.D. and other interested entities." 1/

During the period 1972/73, ten training programmes were carried out, in addition to a small visiting scholar training programme and the introduction of a new doctoral programme, developmental studies in education. Three contracted research projects were also undertaken, along with twenty consulting engagements, over one hundred foreign visitors were received and special seminars were held.

Most of the funds are provided by the university (41%), with 28% from A.I.D. and 3% from other contracts.

The main degree programmes are within the Program of Developmental Studies in Education, and four different specializations are available within this (all at the post-graduate level): Educational Policy Studies, Educational Psychology, Comparative Developmental Studies in Education and the History, Philosophy, Sociology and Psychological Foundations of Education (master's degree only). Twenty-one different staff members are involved, for varying amounts of time, and students from at least fourteen different nations are currently participating. The general aim of the programme is to look at education's role for development and change within a psychological and sociological context.

Institute for World Order - New York

This Institute has a University Centers Program whose ultimate goal is to establish world order studies programmes on twelve to fifteen campuses across the U.S. This is being done through assistance to faculty and students by a number of scholars available for speaking engagements, curriculum consultations and workshops, these scholars being part of the Peace and World Order Resource Network. The approach is one of systematic study and the provision of resource materials to assist this. It is a private foundation which is also working in the field of general public education, community action and the schools.

1/ Center for Educational Technology, Florida State University, Annual Progress Report. 1972/73.

II. CANADA

Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

This institute was established through state legislation in 1965. It is an independent college, with three main aims: graduate studies (through affiliation with the University of Toronto), research and development for educational institutions throughout the state, and field development.

Most of the students take part in a master's programme and about 400 degrees are awarded each year. At any one time, there are about 1.500 students, two-thirds or more being part-timers, with an additional 1.200 registering for summer courses. Of the former, 200 are Ph.D. students, and of the total, about 25% are from thirty different overseas countries. Staff number 450.

Research and development activities cover a wide field, including evaluation and development of curriculum material. The services and facilities cover a library and resource centre, an educational clinic, a modern language centre and a computer laboratory, as well as seven field centres.

There are eleven different departments, each with an extensive series of courses and programmes. Local issues predominate, including Canadian ethnic and migrant groups, but there are also strong components and research interests in comparative education, which cut across the departmental boundaries, and interdisciplinary studies are also possible.

An example of a degree programme is the Third World Studies Project, which is based in the Department of History and Philosophy of Education. It arose out of a course on underdevelopment five years ago, and is currently staffed by one full-time person and one part-time. Its overall aim is to link the philosophy of relationships between nations with a philosophy of pedagogy. The students have been working with teachers in twenty schools, approximately 200 teachers having been involved, and a further 30 - 40 schools have been touched by the project. In the first round, a ten-volume "kit" was produced but this proved too expensive and a second set is now being produced, in addition to a resource guide, "Underdevelopment: Canada and the Third World". The group of staff and students have been working closely with an informal group, the Development Education Centre, in the production of material, and in 1974 a newspaper was begun, which is intended to be a further resource guide. A key to the whole programme is an attempt to link what is happening "out there" in the developing countries, with what is happening in Canada, both in terms of relationships with other countries and minority groups within the country, and extending this to the notion of underdevelopment as any relationship of inferiority or superiority. As well as the kit and work with teachers, individually and through workshops, the participants in the programme are involved in local political action.

School of International Affairs, Carleton University

The school was established for graduate studies and research in the late 1960s. It does not have any faculty of its own, using the faculty of other departments, especially sociology, political science and economics. Its distinctiveness consists of an interdisciplinary, theoretical/functional approach to development and related issues.

Students opt for a core course with options. Approximately forty are selected each year for the master's degree. The core course consists of international integration; political, economic and social development and conflict analysis, and students may then select a programme with regional specialization. It is open to both Canadian and foreign students.

The programme was initially set up by a grant of Can.$1/4 million from an individual, and the recurrent budget of $1/2 million is provided by the university and supplemented by interest on the original grant, as well as grants which are tied to particular research projects.

In the area of research, there is an active visiting scholar programme and exchange programmes with universities and/or institutes in Israel, U.S.S.R., Hungary, Poland, U.S.A., the West Indies and the Netherlands as well as the Commonwealth Centre at Duke University. Links with government are close, since they provide both research money and jobs for many of the graduates from the programme.

Institute for International Co-Operation, University of Ottawa

The institute was inaugurated in 1968 and pursues activities in four main fields: training and study programmes, animation and special programmes, research, and documentation and publications.

Training and Study. There are four main programmes within this: the Programme d'Administration Publique Canada Outre-mer; the Séminaire d'Eté Canada Outre-mer; the Programme of Studies in International Development (PRODEV) and, since 1971, the Programme in University Administration for Central America (SPROCA).

Programme d'Administration publique. This is intended for middle-level public servants from French-speaking Third World countries. It is for two years, leading to the award of a certificate in public administration (after one year) and a diploma in public administration (after two years).

Séminaire d'Eté. This is intended for senior public officials of the French-speaking Third World. It is of about six weeks' duration and deals with a specific and different theme each year; for example the 1947 theme was "Equipements touristiques et politiques de développement".

PRODEV. This programme is designed to meet the need for professional training of persons actively engaged in the administration of programmes of development and international cooperation. It also offers students planning a career in this field the opportunity of acquiring essential knowledge and experience. It combines a theoretical analysis of development problems with a practical approach to the day-to-day problems faced by those administering bilateral and multilateral assistance programmes.

Students for this course must have a university degree or the equivalent and some experience in a development project,or the administration of a development programme, and a working knowledge of both English and French. A post-graduate diploma is awarded at the end of the programme. The main programme objectives include, as well as professional training, the opportunity to reflect on field experience and the opportunity to gain a global vision of development before undertaking a more specialized programme (20 - 25% of students go on to do a higher degree after the programme). The orientation is essentially practical.

Students are divided into small groups of fifteen, as much of the value of the programme is the shared experience. The main course consists of global problems of development, economic change in emerging areas, administration of development programmes and socio-cultural aspects of development (regional and case studies). There is a trip to Washington and New York to see the work of international agencies, and since 1973, four to five weeks' practical work in development agencies in Canada has been built into the course. A memoir which incorporates individual research, and an oral interview, form the final assessment. For the memoir, students are encouraged to draw on their experience and many of the memoirs are published through the documentation service. Staff attempt to keep in touch with, and follow-up, programme participants once they return to work in the field.

Programme in University Administration for Central America. This programme is intended to make available advisors in certain fields of university administration. The advisors, sponsored by CIDA, organize and participate in local and regional training courses, and scholarships or internships are awarded for study in Canada, through attachments in accordance with the specialization and needs of each individual. The programme may be practical or academic. Ten fellows worked at the institute under this scheme in 1973/74.

Staff research varies widely. There are twenty-two teaching members, some of whom have special coordinating roles, and other university staff may be involved from time to time. CIDA provides a considerable proportion of the funds for research as well as for training. Latin America and Africa are the main research areas, with administration and development, international cooperation policies, manpower and training for development, international integration and economic and social development policies being the main foci of interest.

In addition to these main programmes, a regular series of seminars, conferences and films is organized, as well as visiting scholar programmes, and documentation and bibliographic services are provided.

African Studies Programme, York University

This is an undergraduate programme which is interdisciplinary. The course is divided into two sections: core courses which have a substantial amount of material devoted to Africa, and cognate ones, which are intended to place Africa in a comparative, especially a Third World, context. It is interdisciplinary, including anthropology, history, political science and sociology as well as literature, art and music. As well as students taking it as a full course, it is available as a minor sequence to other students in the university. Seventeen staff offer courses within the programme.

Similar approaches are available in East Asian Studies, and Latin American and Caribbean Studies.

Development Education Centre, Toronto

This centre was originally set up as the development education "arm" of OXFAM/Canada in 1969 and is now independent. It is funded mainly by CIDA and the churches. It is included here because there is strong involvement of both staff and students, especially from OISE 1/ (the Third World Project was jointly undertaken). There are six full-time workers, and the main areas covered are the provision of literature, films and other materials, a resources library for use by students and teachers, conferences, research into issues such as Canadian companies and the Third World, and contact with similar groups overseas. The centre sees its role as providing material to stimulate action, rather than initiating that action.

Learner Resource Centre, Ottawa

Like the previous example, this is basically an off-campus group, which started on campus and which involves students. It has three main programmes: one with teachers in development education with an audio-visual emphasis, working with seven teachers to produce a multilog for classroom use; linking CUSO volunteers with teachers who wish to have speakers, and a "Cinema of Struggle" programme of films plus speakers. The stimulation of discussion of Third World issues, especially through focus weeks, is part of the university programme which is also being encouraged in schools, and the library provides books as well as audio-visual materials and a centre for people to come for discussion and informal meetings. There is a full-time staff of two, with a part-time student and volunteers, and like the Development Education Centre, it has been funded by CIDA. There are a number of similar centres in other cities, with closer or looser ties with universities.

1/ OISE = The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

World University Service of Canada

This is probably one of the longest-existing organizations with an interest in development, and ideally brings together staff, students and administrators. There has been a shift of emphasis in recent years, away from fundraising for projects to development education. However, Canadian WUS is still able to obtain funds for international projects, mainly from CIDA as well as campus fundraising which is associated with more educational activities such as development weeks. A feature of the programme in recent years has been an annual seminar in which a group of selected students spend some weeks in a developing country during the summer vacation. The aim of the seminar has been to gain first-hand knowledge of the country in question, and attempts have been made to organize the seminar in cooperation with a WUS group in the host country.

III. FRANCE

Institut d'Etude du Développement Economique et Social/IEDES (Institute of Economic and Social Development Studies) - University of Paris I

IEDES was founded in 1957 and reorganized so that it became part of the programme "Unité d'Enseignement et de Recherche" in 1970. There are three main objectives of the institute: the formation of people who are capable of defining and understanding development policies and of using available techniques in this process; the recognition of concrete ways of dealing with development problems, and the publication of documents relating to these activities. In order to carry out these objectives, IEDES organizes special courses in the field of development, research groups, the publication of the review "Tiers-Monde" and collections of general or special papers, and exchange with local and overseas groups with similar interests.

Teaching is divided into two parts: the first corresponds to the Deuxième Cycle de l'Enseignement Supérieur Français. This is a two-year course: basic concepts, tools of analysis and an examination of the concept of underdevelopment are studied in the first year, and an examination of the barriers to development and the problems of economic policy in the second. At the end of this cycle a diploma is awarded. Course units are available to other students in "Unité d'Enseignement et de Recherche". Each unit has its own form of assessment. The second part corresponds to the Troisième Cycle and is again divided into two main courses. In the first year, students participate actively in research seminars including a specialized option and at the end, a certificate is awarded. The second year is mainly devoted to the preparation of an individual research "memoir" for the award of the Diplôme de Doctorat de Specialité or the Doctorat de III° Cycle. Eight options are available in the third cycle; planning of human resources; public health and nutrition in the process of development; regional analysis; sociology of development; industrial development and techniques for project evaluation; financial systems end development; agricultural development and planning, and international economic reports. There is also a core course on more general development problems.

This course is mainly for students from Latin America and Africa although some French students also participate. It is funded by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

There are four main research groups, economics of education, global growth and regional development, health and nutrition in the development process, and the sociology of development. More than 180 different projects have been carried out since the institute was formed, including work for the French government, Third World governments and international organizations. There is a basic teaching staff of twenty and others participate in individual or team research, which is essentially interdisciplinary in nature.

Institut international de Recherche et de Formation : Education et Développement IRFED (International Institute of Research and Training in Education and Development) - Paris

This institute was founded in 1958 as an independent research centre to promote an international perspective and an integrated approach to the problems of global development. It groups together research workers and development experts of various national and cultural origins to work on specific problems. In a recent reorganization, emphasis was given to the fields of education, training, the participation and planning process in development, especially at the regional and sub-regional levels. The work is styled "research/action", since it deals with concrete problems and works closely with individuals and groups for their solution. Included in the research topics have been development education in the schools of the industrialized countries, education and social change, and a study of Portuguese immigrant children in French schools.

It is a teaching institution in the sense that about sixty students are attached to the institute and work side-by-side with research personnel in the projects, thus attempting to integrate teaching and research activities. One-third of the students are European, the rest coming from developing countries. Wherever possible, counterpart groups are set up in the country in which research is being carried out.

IV. FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Institut für Entwicklungsforschung und Entwicklungspolitik (Institute for Development Research and Development Policy) - Bochum University

This institute was founded in 1967, following a conference in 1965 which was sponsored by the Deutsche Stiftung für Entwicklungsländer on the subject "New Universities and Research in the Developing Countries". The institute has seven main sections:

- National Development Policy
- International Development Policy
- Development Projection and Plan Analysis
- Economics of Education
- Economic and Social Geography
- Constitution and Administration
- Sociology and Demography

It is thus interdisciplinary in orientation, and is concerned with a problem-oriented approach to development questions. Funds are provided from the Bundesministerium für Wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit (Ministry for Economic Cooperation) and private grants for individual projects. The staff is international, with an area concentration in Asia and to a lesser extent, Africa. In addition to seminars, some higher degree students undertake their research in the institute. There is an emphasis on team research and fieldwork, and one special arrangement exists for collaboration with the Osmania University in Hyderabad, India. In some instances, research is undertaken for international organizations.

Forschungsinstitut für Internationale Technisch-Wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit, Rheinisch-Westfälische Technische Hochschule
(Research Institute for International Technico-Economic Cooperation, Rhine-Westphalian Technical College) - Aachen

The institute was founded in 1957 and incorporated into the Rhineland-Westphalia Technical University in 1968. The Director is also the chairman of the Department for International Technical Cooperation which was founded in 1963. Its aims and objectives include the investigation of possibilities for intensifying economic growth by means of technology, and to ensure, within the scope of international cooperation, that the resulting development takes place. Thus the developing countries and their relations with the Federal Republic of Germany as well as with the industrialized countries in general, is the main area of work. The main research areas are:

- Technico-industrial and social development
- Development planning
- The utilization of natural resources
- Infra-structure and economic development
- Technico-industrial education
- Instruments of development policy
- Research and science in developing countries
- International law
- Communication and information

It is thus interdisciplinary, and works in close cooperation with other specialized institutes and with industry.

As part of the Faculty of Philosophy, teaching is also carried out. This is in two main parts - a series of lectures covering one full year, on such topics as industrialization, investment, international cooperation in aid, which students at various levels and from different departments, may elect to take, and seminars which supplement the lectures. Teaching is mainly in the field of economics, and a maximum of four half-year courses may be undertaken, which are examinable in writing and orally, and some students may also undertake a short dissertation under the supervision of the institute. However, most of its work is in the field of research and only a few of the staff have teaching duties.

Funds are provided by the university, the Ministry for Economic Cooperation or the Research Office of the Ministry of Science and Research in North Rhine-Westphalia.

Institut für Sozialökonomie der Agrarentwicklung der Technischen Universität (Social and Economic Institute for Agricultural Development of the Technical University) - Berlin

This institute was established in 1959 as part of the Faculty of Agriculture of the Technical University (up to 1972 it was known as the Institute of Overseas Agriculture). It is now part of the Department of Agricultural Development. It has four main functions:

Research - Priority is given to agricultural extension and promotion, and agricultural product markets, as well as to development aid and theory. Empirical surveys and basic work is most common.

Teaching and Training - Students at the university may undertake courses in agricultural development. These courses last for one semester and are generally available to students at the university.

Advisory and Extra-mural activities - Staff participate in a wide range of outside activities, including seminars and work with the German Foundation for International Development and the German Foundation for Developing Countries.

Seminar on Agricultural Development, which is a section of the institute and consists of a nucleus of post-graduate students. This has been extended, since 1973, to include, in addition to a nine-month course, a two year one with a strong emphasis on practical training in international agricultural development. Special projects abroad are set up for the field work. Further, in-service training is provided for different specialist groups.

Fifteen academics and ten other members of staff work together with foreign guests, up to ten in number, in both teaching and research. Cooperation with agricultural institutions in developing countries is a feature of the work of the institute.

Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik (German Institute for Development Policy) - Berlin

This is an independent foundation in the field of international development, set up in 1964 by the Federal Republic of Germany and the City State of Berlin, who share the costs of it. It has three functions:

- Advisory and consulting services to public institutions dealing with international cooperation.
- Research work in fields of current interest for international development.
- Training of German post-graduate students for assignments in German and international development institutions.

The work of the institute is essentially practical in nature, including the training function. The course is of one year's duration, and involves three months' training in Berlin, fieldwork in a developing country and evaluation of the fieldwork results and continuation of the training in Berlin. Another feature of the work is its interdisciplinary approach which is evident in research as well as in teaching. The consulting work is closely linked to activities in the public sector and especially the ministries of the Federal Republic, the E.E.C., public bodies in developing countries and UN bodies.

UNESCO Institute for Education - Hamburg

This institute has two main functions, research, and teaching. The latter is primarily carried out through the attachment of post-graduate students from throughout the world.

Recent research includes the preparation of curriculum material for education for international understanding (work with fifteen teachers from UNESCO Associated Project Schools), curriculum research and development in the Federal Republic, a conceptual evaluation of lifelong education and the school curriculum, the foundations of lifelong education, lifelong education and teacher preparation, curriculum and lifelong education, and case studies. This work is international and practical, being undertaken in association with various institutions in countries throughout the world. In addition to regular staff, visiting research specialists are invited each year and special seminars are held, usually at a high governmental or institutional level.

Pädagogische Arbeitsstelle Dritte Welt (Third World Pedagogical Centre) - Hamburg

This was established in the early 1970s with money from the Bundesministerium für Wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit (Ministry for Economic Cooperation). Its main function is to gather information on courses and curricula on development, which was undertaken first through a general questionnaire, and to develop further material for various levels of instruction as well as provide an advisory service in this field.

V. THE NETHERLANDS

Derde Wereld Centrum (Third World Centre) - University of Nijmegen

The struggle to establish this centre commenced in 1968, when student interest in developing countries was high and a staff vacancy in cultural anthropology lent itself to the appointment of someone who had specialized in Third World issues. The process continued, with vetoes from both the university administration and the government, which has the ultimate say in the appointment of professors for five years. The centre was finally approved by the university in 1973. Its staff consists of one assistant professor and three part-time researchers. It is funded by the university and is available for students from all sections of the university, although the maximum course credit which can be gained from study at the centre is two years.

There are approximately 350 students participating in the courses. These are research/action in orientation, with an emphasis on study of issues, vacation work in relevant fields, and close cooperation and work with student and local action groups. There are fifteen working groups, on issues ranging from the Sahel to Netherlands involvement in NATO, and several groups are closely involved in work with local guest workers. There is a general "progression", from basically information-gathering groups to more sophisticated research and action, and the subject of the groups is closely related to the research interests of the staff. In some instances, students and outsiders with special knowledge actually lead the groups, and the notion of participation is of high priority. It is possible to undertake doctoral research under the supervision of the centre, although staff members feel that its continued existence is uncertain, with resistance coming from more established fields, on the basis of the activities and orientations of the centre. However, there is strong student support for it, and even those who do not officially take courses there come to it for resources and other activities. It provides the best example of the research/action approach within formal studies, as well as exemplifying interdisciplinary approaches which see development in a local and national as well as an international context. It also has strong community links.

Instituut voor Ontwikkelingfvragstukken (Development Research Institute) - University of Tilburg

This is a fully-fledged university institute, which began as a department of economics in 1920 and expanded to include sociology, psychology and law. It has two main functions: research of an interdisciplinary nature, and teaching, mainlyin sociology and economics, at the "doctoraal" level. Research is carried out with funds from the government and in cooperation with other institutions, both at home and in developing countries. Social research centres on the role of religion in a general theory of development, and some church funds are provided for this. There are eleven full-time research staff.

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Of the 30 institutions listed in the 1974 Survey of International Studies in the Netherlands, the majority fall within this pattern, the four main areas covered being: international studies in the narrow sense, which are brought together under the label international relations/peace research; studies of the integration process, especially European integration; studies of development, both in national and international settings with a main focus on economic development in the Third World, and area studies.

Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Cooperation (NUFFIC) - The Hague

This was established in 1952 by a joint act of the Boards of Governors of all Netherlands universities. Its main function was the promotion of international cooperation in the field of higher education and research, with special emphasis on the developing countries. Its main activities are:

- the bringing about, stimulation and coordination of bi- and multi-lateral cooperation between institutions for higher education and research inside and outside the Netherlands;
- organizing and promoting post-graduate courses, offered primarily to foreigners;
- promoting the study of matters relating to international cooperation in the field of higher education and research;
- providing clearing-house facilities for the exchange of information on university matters between the Netherlands and other countries.

In the pursuit of these aims, NUFFIC arranges special courses of six to eighteen months' duration for foreign students, in English or French, to enable further specialization for these students. Courses and seminars in a wide field are arranged, in cooperation with other educational institutions. In some cases of post-graduate courses, it is the degree-granting body. Since 1970, it has also coordinated government projects for the promotion of higher education in developing countries.

VI. SWEDEN

Department of Peace and Conflict Research, University of Uppsala

The department began in 1966 as a series of seminars which were open to the public as well as to various institutions at the university. It was given standing as an independent department in 1969 and gained an office and operating costs from the university's budget in 1971. Other funds have been provided from various organizations. In the field of teaching, work is undertaken in four main areas:

- basic university courses in peace research;
- courses for inclusion in other subjects such as history, political science and sociology;
- supervision of graduate research students;
- public seminars.

There are seven main research areas: the structure of the international system; problems of armament and disarmament; forms of non-military struggle; refusal of military duty; ideas, institutions and social change; peace research; analysis and criticism of its development, and general conflict theory.

The organization of the department reflects its basic aim of doing research on "social and economic structures, both national and international, to service oppressed groups, classes and peoples in their struggle for freedom and justice", includes representatives from the students, the academic staff and administrative personnel (this is in line with the official organizational model which was established following student demands in 1968) and planning is undertaken by meetings of these people. There is only one full-time academic appointment to the department.

Department of Development Studies, University of Uppsala

This began in 1970 as a half-year course and so far, there has been strong resistance to increasing the length of the course to a full year. It is an interdisciplinary course, analyzing development problems from the viewpoints of political science, sociology, social psychology, economics, history and education. Social development is emphasized, and one section of the course deals with case studies of technical assistance, which is based on documentary analysis. It is for undergraduates, and specifically does not deal with "hardline" development economics or politics.

Eight courses have been run, with approximately thirty students per course, including part-time students. It has attracted former and future volunteers and trade union officers, about half of each course being people with such experience, as well as some students who reacted strongly to the university situation in the late 1960s and began to set up alternative courses. In addition to this course, through agreement with SIDA, a course is run for experts who are going to East Africa and Ethiopia to work, and in addition to the experts, their wives and families are encouraged to attend. There is some cooperation with other departments, inside and outside the university.

Scandinavian Institute for African Studies, Uppsala

This was set up as a joint venture of the Danish, Norwegian and Swedish governments as an information centre in 1962. The location was determined by the fact that the University of Uppsala had been collecting specialized works on African colonization since the 1830s. The decision to establish an African Institute followed to some extent from the strong missionary interest in Africa, especially since Scandinavian Lutherans took over from German missionaries in Africa during the First World War.

Information was the first task of the institute, followed by the training of officers for service in Africa, a function which is now undertaken by SIDA. Research has now become an important aspect of the work. Research associates are appointed who spend half their time on individual or team research and half on preparing publications for the institute. The annual budget is now around S.Kr. 1 million.

Other concerns include management of rural development, Southern Africa, Francophone Africa, and relationships between the West and Africa.

Although it is basically a service institution, three scholarships are provided for research students and others use the research facilities including the Swahili language course. Some work has been undertaken with teachers in the preparation of material on Africa for use in the schools. A series of seminars are run, both in Sweden and in Africa, including one on development politics generally, and support is given to small, informal groups interested in Africa.

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Special note should be taken of the role of SIDA and the National Board of Education in providing in-service training for teachers in the field of international relations and development, in sponsoring adult education courses on these topics and of assisting and coordinating research.

VII. UNITED KINGDOM

Overseas Development Group, University of East Anglia

The University, from its inception, has planned to establish a special interest in the problems of developing countries. To this end, in 1967 the Overseas Development Group was established. Its aims are:

- teaching on economic development, planning and social change in less developed countries;
- operational and advisory work overseas on technical assistance or consultancy assignments with governments, international agencies and other organizations;
- research into project preparation, project appraisal, techniques of planning, methods of plan implementation, and more widely ranging research into the problems of economic and social development.

It is an integral part of the university, composed of economists, sociologists and geographers. It forms part of the School of Social Studies and works in cooperation with other schools in the university, especially environmental sciences and natural sciences. In 1973/74 the members of the group formed a new School of Developmental Studies. The group's members have the main responsibility for the M.A. programme in development economics as well as basic teaching programmes in their own disciplines.

The first undergraduate degree in development studies was commenced in 1973, with 100 students admitted in that year and a further group of 60 - 70 in 1974. Courses may be undertaken in other schools as well, but the significant feature is that, organized around a core course, students may take a full major degree sequence in development studies, which is made up of core courses which include economics, geography, sociology, social anthropology and statistics, followed by options. There are 25 staff members in the new school.

In addition, staff and graduate research covers a wide field, both in terms of the subject and the geographical area. There is an increasing concern with underdevelopment in industrialized countries, and staff who have worked in such projects are currently engaged in a project for the Highlands and Islands Development Board of Scotland. Honours and higher degree students may undertake such "local" research.

Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex

The institute was established in early 1966 as a national centre of concern about Third World development and the relationships between rich and poor countries. The emphasis is on a problem orientation, on interdisciplinary work and on presentation of research findings in such a way that the policy implications are clear. There are 19 core Fellows, with up to 60 people including research staff and visitors, one-third of whom are from overseas, at any one time. It is largely (two-thirds) funded by the Ministry for Overseas Development.

There are four research groups: rural development, international relations, planning and government, and human resources. In terms of teaching, in the 1974/75 academic year, there are six study-seminars on specialized topics for people from developing countries, study groups which are organized at the request of outside bodies, individual study fellowships, and provision of courses and supervision for students of the interdisciplinary M.Phil. course in Development Studies, which is designed for those who have already some work experience in developing countries. Individual students from other departments may also undertake research under the supervision of the Institute.

The Open University, Milton Keynes

As stated in the official handout from the University, the "objects of the Open University are to provide opportunities at both undergraduate and post-graduate levels of higher education to all those who, for any reason, have been or are being precluded from achieving their aims through an existing instituion of higher education". Student numbers are around 38.000, and finance is provided by a block grant from the Ministry of Science and Education. It was established in 1969. Tuition and materials fees are levied.

The system works through correspondence texts, television programmes, radio programmes, summer schools of one week's duration, correspondence tuition, and in some cases, face-to-face course tuition, counselling and set texts. There are thirteen regional offices and more advisory centres throughout the UK and Northern Ireland. Over 110 courses at the three main levels are offered in 1975, and 15 "post-experience" courses. These range widely, and although there are none at the moment which deal specifically with development studies, there is room for these.

The Open University has created wide interest in a number of countries, and in addition to receiving a large number of visitors per month, has provided places for longer term study of the system for overseas scholars and has run several pilot projects in other countries.

Intermediate Technology Development Group, London

This was established in 1965 to investigate ways and means of utilizing to the fullest extent the resources available to developing countries through the application of the appropriate technologies. Its main aims are:

- to compile inventories of existing technologies which can be used within the concept of low-cost, labour-intensive production;
- to identify gaps in the range of existing technologies;
- to research into and develop or modify new or more appropriate processes;
- to test and demonstrate in the field the results of investigations;
- to publish and make known the results of the work.

A number of voluntary panels exist, made up of people from various academic and other spheres, and the programme is carried out through research and development units in the UK and overseas consultancies and projects.

VIII. AUSTRALIA

Centre of Southeast Asian Studies, Monash University

This was created in 1964 as a multi-disciplinary area study, the first concentrating on Southeast Asia in Australia, to develop post-graduate and staff research. The departments of Indonesian and Malay, History, Sociology and Anthropology, Geography, Music, Politics, Economics and Education participate on the standing committee, and post-graduate students in these departments undertake work in the centre. These separate departments also have undergraduate courses in various Southeast Asian topics.

The centre has a full-time research director, and organizes a seminar programme in both general aspects of Southeast Asia, making considerable use of visiting speakers from the area, and specific research topics at which each student gives a paper on his or her own research. In addition, in 1974, a special seminar on rural development was established. There is an emphasis on field work and the preparation of students for this. Close contact is kept with other groups, including student groups and teachers' groups, and the centre provides a general focus for people in the city of Melbourne who are interested in Southeast Asia.

Centre for Environmental Studies, University of Melbourne

This was established in 1973, the primary aim being to initiate, promote and coordinate studies of the human environment as affected by urbanization and industrialization, and to promote cooperation and communication between workers in all fields related to problems of human ecology.

There is a staff of seven and the main focus is on research. In addition, seminars and conferences of relevance to environmental issues are organized and visits from international experts are sponsored. It is hoped to commence a post-graduate course in 1976 or 1977.

Department of General Studies, University of New South Wales

This department is in a sense a "service" department, since students in scientific and technical faculties have to undertake at least one year's study in a humanities/social science area. In 1975, a new course in problems of underdeveloped countries is being offered by one member of the department. The aim of the course is to look at broad issues of development, through a combination of lectures and tutorials, and it is in a sense open-ended, the final programme being dependent on interests developed throughout the course. Case studies from Asia and the Pacific will be examined.

School of Education, La Trobe University

The school took in its first students in 1970. Three courses are available: the diploma in education, which may be taken in one year after the completion of a first degree or concurrently, over the second, third and fourth years of the first degree; the Bachelor of Education, which is a two-year part-time post-graduate degree for practising teachers, and higher degrees at both master's and doctorate levels.

A significant feature of the school is its approach to pre-service teacher education. Students are organized in core groups of 65 - 75, four such groups being offered a year. Each group works with 5 - 8 staff members, the distinctive features of different groups consisting of foci on migrant teaching, open-classroom methods, and educational innovation. There are no formal lectures, students working through seminars related to their school practice, electives in a wide range of fields (including "teaching about other cultures"), and teaching methods tutorials. There is a strong emphasis on teaching practice and students are encouraged to do more than the required 45 days. Many participate in group projects with migrant and underprivileged children, school camps and teaching

English to adult migrants. Continuous assessment through individual project reports, sample lessons and practical classroom performance is carried out.

At the post-graduate level, a wide range of possibilities is offered. Those of the Centre for Comparative and International Studies, and the Centre for Urban Education, emphasize studies of education in developing countries and in multi-ethnic communities in the inner-city areas, and individual staff are also undertaking research in these areas including assistance with preparation of classroom units, bilingual teaching materials and seminars and workshops for teachers.

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Other specialized courses exist at teacher training institutions, including ones for Asian teachers of English as a foreign language and the preparation of teachers to work in Papua New Guinea and in predominantly Aboriginal communities, e.g. Armidale Teachers College, Canberra College of Advanced Education, Torrens College of Advanced Education. In some instances this is extended to special courses for students from developing countries, and this includes medicine and engineering, nutrition and agriculture as well as education.

Australian National University

In addition to undergraduate courses in Asian Studies, the main aspect of the Australian National University which is classified under development studies is the work of the Research School of Pacific Studies.

This is predominantly a multi-disciplinary centre for post-graduate and staff research. It offers a variety of programmes of seminars for graduate students, as well as general research seminars, and at present over twenty members of the school have had considerable experience in developing countries, development issues at home and abroad, and are carrying out research in the field. Funded by the Australian government, it has the best research facilities of any institution in Australia and attracts a wide range of short and longer-term visitors. At the moment, negotiations are under way to establish a centre for development studies, to coordinate work in this field which is already being undertaken by the separate departments which compose the school.

CLASSIFICATION OF PROGRAMMES INTO THE TEN MODELS

Model I : Traditional Undergraduate

Most undergraduate programmes at Michigan State University
African, East Asian, and Latin American and Caribbean Studies, York University
Degree in Asian Studies, Australian National University.

Model II : Traditional Post-Graduate

MA and Ph.D. Programs, College of Education, University of California, Berkeley
Program of Development Studies in Education, College of Education, Florida State University
Institute for Economic and Social Research, University of Tilburg

Model III : Practical Undergraduate

Courses in education at the College of Education, University of Pittsburgh
BA in Development Studies, University of East Anglia

Model IV : Practical Post-Graduate

Ph.D. Program, SIDEC, Stanford University
MA and Ph.D. Programs, College of Education, Berkeley (with teaching credentials)
MA and Ph.D. Programs, College of Education, Michigan State University
International and Development Education Program, University of Pittsburgh
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education programmes
IEDES (Institute of Economic and Social Development Studies) - University of Paris I.
PRODEV Program, University of Ottawa
Technical University, Berlin
M.Phil., University of Sussex
Post-graduate programmes at the Research School of Pacific Studies, Australian National University
Southeast Asian Studies Centre, Monash University

Model V : Study/Service

Waianae Project, University of Hawaii

Model VI : Research/Action

Center for the Teaching of International Relations, University of Denver
Experiment: Learning from Other Cultures, State University College, Buffalo
Third World Studies Project, OISE (The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education)
IRFED programmes (International Institute of Research and Training in Education and Development), Paris
Third World Centre, University of Nijmegen
Development Studies and Peace and Conflict Studies, University of Uppsala
Dip. Ed. and B.Ed. programmes, School of Education, La Trobe University

Model VII : Manpower Training

Fellowship Program in Development Education, Stanford University
Center for Educational Technology, Florida State University
Master of Business Administration, University of Dallas
SPROCA, Institute for International Cooperation, University of Ottawa
NUFFIC, The Netherlands
Post-graduate courses, University of Sussex
Special programmes, Technical University, Berlin
German Foundation for International Development

Model VIII : The Internationalized Institution

Michigan State University

Model IX : The Research Institute

Bi-lingual Education Task Force, University of Hawaii
International Development Resource Center, Indiana University
Center for Educational Technology, Florida State University
IEDES, Paris
Technical University, Aachen
Overseas Development Group, University of East Anglia
Development Studies Institute, University of Sussex
Technical University, Berlin
Social and Economic Research Institute, University of Tilburg
Unesco Institute of Education, Hamburg
Scandinavian Institute for African Studies, Uppsala
Research School of Pacific Studies, Australian National University

Model X : Community Education

OISE Schools Programme
PRODEV, University of Ottawa
Development Education Centre, Toronto
Learner Resource Centres, Canada
Third World Centre, Hamburg
Scandinavian Institute for African Studies, Uppsala
The Open University, Milton Keynes
Intermediate Technology Development Group, London

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It should be noted that some institutions feature in several models - this refers to different aspects of the programmes. Not all programmes, especially teacher-training, traditional undergraduate and informal organizations, are included, since their categorization is fairly obvious.

A NOTE ON THE "GUIDE TO STUDENT ACTION FOR DEVELOPMENT"

Included in the terms of reference for the survey was an analysis of the effects of the "Guide to Student Action for Development" prepared by the International Student Movement of the United Nations (ISMUN) and the World University Service (WUS) in the early 1970s.

This Guide was the result of a seminar held in Juelsminde, Denmark, in July 1968, sponsored by the International Federation of Medical Students' Associations (IFMSA), ISMUN and WUS. The theme of the seminar was "The role of students in development", and one of the recommendations from it was that a handbook should be prepared for students in industrialized countries, suggesting a basis for, and examples of, student action for development. This was undertaken by a small group of students, which included students from developing countries, under the aegis of WUS and ISMUN, sponsored by Action for Development. It finally appeared in 1971 and was distributed through national WUS and ISMUN groups and other youth-groups cooperating with Action for Development.

In most cases, these groups did not keep any record of numbers of the Guide received, the way in which it was distributed or any activities stimulated by it. While it provided a reference point for further thinking by the two co-authoring agencies, no particular activities were organized by them at any level in direct relationship to it. Thus any attempt to evaluate its effectiveness in detail is impossible.

However, it did provide a document bringing together ideas and examples, at the time an innovation, and in particular, it provided a unique experience in international cooperation and learning for its authors. As such, it marks a milestone for the two organizations and is an historical document on the student movement for development at the time. The long gap between its inception and distribution, meant that the student movement had largely overtaken it by the time it got into the hands of individuals and groups, although it does still embody some suggestions and principles which are currently being practised. It has had a wide distribution, and has been known to turn up on the desks of vice-chancellors, anxious about their radical students and how to represent the university as a socially responsible institution, as well as on the shelves of non student agencies.

An expensive exercise of value to a limited number of people, perhaps, but as an example of action and possibilities for action, and in the absence of more specific information on which to base an evaluation, an example of an approach to development education, it is an exercise with both intrinsic and specific merits.